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ABSTRACT

The objective of the study is to provide a comparison of the educational assistance benefits available to returning servicemen under the three G.I. Bills that have been in effect since 1944. Most of the information deals with the almost 1.4 million veterans receiving educational benefits. Some data are included on the 19,500 vocational rehabilitation trainees and the 45,800 dependents who were receiving benefits as of April 1973. Much of the data on benefit programs is non-comparable. Most of the data analyzed came from V.A. files. Since the V.A. has no means of evaluating State Approving Agencies, it cannot judge their effectiveness. The rate of participation in educational benefits is substantially lower for black veterans. Special education programs for all educationally disadvantaged groups were better developed during the Vietnam Era than previously. In general, the "real value" of the educational allowance available to veterans of World War II was greater than the current allowance being paid to veterans of the Vietnam conflict when adjustments are made for the payment of tuition, fees, books, and supplies. The effectiveness of these benefits is directly related to the availability of low-cost readily accessible public institutions, which varies considerably between States. Coordination of services with other Federal agencies by the V.A. has been limited. (A 46-page bibliography is included.) (MS)

CE

93d Congress }
1st Session }

SENATE COMMITTEE PRINT NO. 18

FINAL REPORT
ON
EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE TO VETERANS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THREE G.I. BILLS

(Conducted by the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J., pursuant to Section 413 of Public Law 92–540)

SUBMITTED TO THE

COMMITTEE ON VETERANS' AFFAIRS
UNITED STATES SENATE

VANCE HARTKE, *Chairman*

SEPTEMBER 20, 197

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
EDUCATION & WELFARE
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LETTERS OF TRANSMITTAL

VETERANS ADMINISTRATION,
OFFICE OF THE ADMINISTRATOR OF VETERANS AFFAIRS,
Washington, D.C., September 18, 1973.

Hon. SPIRO T. AGNEW,
President of the Senate,
Washington, D.C.

DEAR MR. PRESIDENT: Section 413 of Public Law 92–540, the Vietnam Era Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act of 1972, directed the Administrator of Veterans Affairs, in consultation with the Administrator's Advisory Committee on veterans' vocational rehabilitation and education, to provide for "an independent study of the operation of the post-Korean conflict program of educational assistance currently carried out under [title 38 U.S.C.] in comparison with similar programs of educational assistance that were available to veterans of World War II and of the Korean conflict." It was further specified that the results of the study, "together with such recommendations as are warranted to improve the present program," were to be transmitted to the President and the Congress within six months after the date of enactment of P.L. 92–540.

Several factors combined, however, to make an extension of that deadline (April 24, 1973) advisable. On April 9, 1973, the Chairmen of the Senate and House Committees on Veterans' Affairs were advised of the reasons for the delay and that the results of a comprehensive and objective study would be transmitted by mid-September 1973.

Proposals for the study were requested from eleven potential contractors on May 4, 1973, and, upon the recommendation of the Advisory Committee, I approved an award to Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, on May 25, 1973. On August 20, 1973, the Project Director for Educational Testing Service (ETS) forwarded to the Veterans Administration the results of the study, entitled: *Educational Assistance to Veterans: A Comparative Study of Three GI Bills.* This document was immediately turned over to the Advisory Committee for its review and analysis.

After announcement in the Federal Register, the Committee met with the Project Director and other representatives of ETS, on August 30, 1973. In that session, it was pointed out to ETS that the presentation of its findings and conclusions bore no apparent relationship to the purposes of the study as outlined in the contract, and that the Report contained certain inaccuracies, and—in the opinion of the Committee—other errors of both omission and commission. By mutual consent, the Committee considered the document before it to be a "draft final report;" and, ETS agreed to (1) revise the section on "findings and conclusions" to relate them more clearly to the purposes of the study, and (2) to correct data errors throughout the report.

On September 8, 1973, ETS returned the revised report and met again with the Advisory Committee on that date. The Advisory Committee received the Final Report at that meeting and, under date of September 10, it was forwarded to me by the Chairman of the Committee's Subcommittee on the Independent Study.

Since then the Report has been under intensive review by the VA. While this review is ongoing, I am transmitting herewith the results of the study, in the form of the Final Report by the Educational Testing Service, and the observations and recommendations of my Advisory Committee (Letter of September 10, 1973).

There is set forth below VA's preliminary analysis of the Report, and our comments and reactions to its major findings and conclusions.

Section 413 required that the comparison of the programs applicable to the three eras be made from the following six points of view: *administration; veteran participation; safeguards against abuse; adequacy of benefit level; scope of programs;* and *information and outreach efforts.* In these six areas of analysis, the highlights of the study's findings and conclusions are as follows:

Administration

The Veterans Administration has administered the educational benefit programs effectively and responsibly over the three conflict periods.

The Report also contains the following related observations—

VA has changed its organizational structure to keep pace with operational experience and new legislative policies and requirements.

VA has continued to improve in terms of safeguarding against abuses in the programs.

VA has made (and is making) progressive moves toward improved service to veterans and reduced operational inefficiencies; however, it is too early to assess the effectiveness of certain current efforts.

VA has increased its working relationships with other concerned agencies and organizations and its participation on interagency committees; and, the degree of coordination between the VA and other Federal agencies is greater now than during the two previous conflict periods. On the other hand, the Report expresses the following reservations in this regard:

(*a*) coordination between VA and other Federal agencies "remains limited" and "varies greatly from agency to agency;" although, "when the VA has exercised initiative and leadership the results have been good."

(*b*) "coordination with the plethora of local level community services is left to the discretion of the regional or field office." (While the Report does not contain documentation on the point, this latter reservation implies unevenness of coordination by VA field stations with non-VA agencies and organizations interested in veterans' educational programs).

Concerning these observations on administration, the Report does not explain their relationship to a study of comparability of the three program eras, but the apparent implication is to the effect that the Vietnam Era veteran is better off in this regard than his World

War II and Korean conflict counterparts. Certainly, there was no counterpart in the previous eras to the President's Veterans Program ("Six-Point Program"). This massive effort—launched in 1971 pursuant to an executive order by President Nixon—in which the concerted attention of all concerned Federal agencies was focused on the problems of Vietnam returnees receives only indirect, and slight mention in the ETS Report. VA played a significant role in this successful endeavor to coordinate all programs of the Executive Branch that might in any way speed the full readjustment of Vietnam veterans. Moreover, this is an ongoing effort and the VA has recently developed a comprehensive plan for intensifying the cooperative activities of all agencies and organizations, private as well as public, that are concerned with the provision of benefits and services (including information and outreach efforts) for veterans of the Vietnam Era. This will cover local, as well as State and national organizations, and specific and uniform guidelines will be provided to VA field stations.

Also, in the area of administration, the Report contains two criticisms of VA's handling of the educational assistance programs. Neither of these relate to comparability but they deserve comment here.

The first has to do with VA's policies as to assessment of program effectiveness, and the second with VA's methods of measurement of progress and attendance by veterans in trade and vocational training schools, as opposed to those in institutions of higher learning (i.e., a clock-hour standard applies to other than college level studies, whereas a credit-hour standard is used for college degree programs).

It is true that VA in the past has not considered that its mission included the collection and analysis of data other than that which is necessary for administering the educational program and providing service to veterans. This view is based on the fact that the assessment of the effectiveness or quality of education and training has not been explicitly committed to VA by the Congress. However, the sensitivity of this issue, as drawn in the Report, deserves further consideration and discussion with the concerned Committee of the Congress.

VA's policy regarding the clock-hour standard for measuring progress and attendance in trade and vocational schools stems from 1950 legislation, applicable to World War II trainees, and it has remained essentially unchanged throughout the Korean and Vietnam experience. Nevertheless, the Report expresses the view that the requirement is outmoded, is unnecessarily discriminating, and "may be inhibiting the use of benefits for below college level training." In 1971, VA did recommend a liberalization of its policy (to apply in those instances of trade or technical courses given at an institution offering courses leading to a standard college degree) but this proposal was not endorsed by the Congress. VA will take another look at this entire question, from the viewpoint stated in the Report, and make such recommendations as seem warranted.

Veteran Participation

The Report contains much data on the percentage of usage (i.e., "participation rates") by eligible veterans of the GI education benefit for the three conflict periods. On the basis of this data, the study found that "the participation rate of Vietnam Era veterans is approaching that of World War II."

This same data also reveals that the Vietnam Era participation rate already exceeds that of Korean conflict veterans. (The VA's own studies show that the Vietnam Era participation rate not only is "approaching" that of World War II but will soon exceed it, perhaps as early as this fall's enrollment. Ultimately, it appears that the Vietnam Era participation rate will go well beyond that of World War II veterans).

The Report contends, however, that the respective participation rates (i.e., the percentage of eligible veterans who use their GI educational benefits) are not an adequate measure of the relative success of the programs, for the three eras, in providing readjustment assistance.

While the VA believes that participation rates remain a useful indicator for this purpose (in fact, it is the only one available), the VA is aware that in several respects a direct comparison of participation rates cannot be made. As the Report points out, the educational and socio-economic structure of the nation has changed profoundly since 1945. This fact has had and continues to have an impact on the utilization of the veterans educational assistance programs. More specifically, the Report discusses in detail several factors which make meaningful comparisons of participation rates for the three eras difficult or impossible. Principally, there have been significant changes (1) in the demographic characteristics of the members of the Armed Forces (and therefore of the veterans population); (2) in the patterns of release from active duty; and (3) in the eligibility requirements for utilization of the benefit (i.e., since June 1, 1966, the "veterans" educational program has been available to certain active duty servicemen, and almost 12% of all Vietnam veterans trained under the current program took advantage of this change). The Report also takes note of several trends in educational practices that have had an impact on today's veteran (who, on the average, was younger at time of discharge and had attained a higher educational level than his World War II counterpart). These trends include increased popularity and acceptance of part-time, rather than full-time training; and the greater availability and utilization of community and Junior Colleges.

In addition to the question of overall participation rates, the Report addresses the matter of participation rates among black veterans and educationally disadvantaged veterans, both black and white.

Because of a scarcity of pertinent data, however, it is not possible—in these two areas—to make meaningful comparisons of participation rates for either black or educationally disadvantaged veterans of the three conflict periods. Thus, the Report's findings in this regard are largely limited to issues relating to Vietnam Era veterans alone. These are:

(1). that "The rate of participation in educational benefits among black veterans is substantially below that of white veterans . . .;" and,

(2). that "Educationally disadvantaged Vietnam Era veterans, both white and black, . . . participate in educational programs at a much lower than average rate."

Both of these "findings" have been well-known to the VA and others concerned with the veterans educational assistance programs, and

VA for some long time has made considerable extra effort on both fronts. Concerning this, the Report makes clear that educationally disadvantaged Vietnam Era veterans "are receiving more attention with regard to special education and training programs than have disadvantaged veterans of the two previous conflicts."

The Report also points out that the educationally disadvantaged black is participating in training at a higher rate than white disadvantaged veterans, but concludes: "It appears that current efforts need augmentations in order to further motivate the black veteran to enter training."

The VA is not in disagreement with this conclusion. It has already prepared (i.e., before receipt of the Report) an action plan to pursue even more positive approaches to seeking out and motivating all minority veterans and educationally disadvantaged veterans who have not yet taken advantage of their education and training benefits.

Safeguards against abuse

The Report finds that today's veterans' educational assistance program is relatively free of abuse. It states that abuses appear to have been more serious and more widespread in the World War II period than in either the Korean conflict or the Vietnam Era periods, and that the VA's administration of educational benefits continues to improve in terms of safeguarding against abuse.

In support of this, the Report briefly traces the legislative and administrative history of the three GI bills, including steps taken to deal with major abuses. In this connection, it notes that the Korean GI Bill (P.L. 82–550) was of major significance and that its basic provisions were retained in the 1966 Vietnam Era GI Bill (P.L. 89–358). Compared to the original GI Bill, the principal safeguards against abuse are stated in the Report as follows:

". . . Under the Korean Bill, the enrolling veteran had to demonstrate a definite educational or vocational objective, he could not enroll in a vocational or recreational courses, and he was entitled to only one change of course before VA authorization was required.

"As an attempted safeguard against overcharges and abuses by profit schools, P.L. 82–550 provided that the educational assistance allowance would be paid directly to the veteran as a partial stipend, with no direct tuition payment to be made to the school by the VA."

Against this background, the Report stresses "The singular lack of significant publicity with respect to widespread abuses in the various educational and training programs today—in contrast to those of WWII;" and concludes that "The probability of such abuses occurring at the present time would appear to be minimized due to the widespread experience and interaction of the federal government and the educational community in a wide variety of financial programs and the absence of a large volume of veterans entering educational institutions simultaneously."

As to specific abuses in today's program, the Report focuses on the area of correspondence courses. Again, it traces the history of VA's and Congress' efforts to develop and apply safeguards relative to veterans training by correspondence. This covers the VA-initiated changes incorporated in P.L. 92–540, and the Report refers to these as "significant safeguards for the correspondence training area." It also covers the administrative steps VA has taken to inform and caution veterans on certain aspects of correspondence courses.

Concerning this area, the Report contains one finding: ". . . progress has been made toward reducing abuses in training by correspondence. . . ." At the same time, it concludes that "some problems remain which warrant careful scrutiny and safeguards."

This conclusion appears to relate to a concern over low completion rates and problems ("though less flagrant than in previous years") involving the advertising and sales practices of some correspondence schools.

The VA agrees with the finding and with the conclusion (even though the latter appears to go beyond the study's legislative mission), and VA will continue—within the limits of its authority—to examine closely the entire area of training by correspondence under the GI Bill.

Adequacy of Benefit Level

In seeking the answer to the question, "How does the level of benefits paid to Vietnam veterans compare with those benefits paid to World War II veterans?," the study proceeded on the basis that: "A measure of the 'real' value of educational benefits or what dollar amount in benefits would be required to provide parity in purchasing an education between the veterans of World War II and his Vietnam counterpart may be ascertained by adjusting the World War II subsistence benefits and educational benefits for changes that have occurred in the Consumer Price Index."

For this computation, the amounts available in 1948 (highest WWII rates) for a single veteran in an institution of higher learning were matched—on a constant dollar basis—with the amounts available currently for a similarly situated Vietnam veteran.

The Report cites the results of this analysis as follows:

"It is apparent that the *average* Vietnam veteran attending a 4-year public or a 2-year *public* institution has educational benefits slightly higher than his World War II counterpart when adjustments for changes in the Consumer Price Index are made."

Despite this clear and obviously correct statement, the Report proceeds to argue that the "real value" of the educational allowance available to veterans of World War II was greater than the current allowance being paid to veterans of the Vietnam conflict. In doing so, the Report brings into the discussion a number of matters which VA believes go beyond the issue of comparability, and beyond the basic intent of the Congress when it extended educational *assistance* allowances to veterans of the three conflict periods.

On this latter point, it must be stressed that the GI Bills were never designed to provide *all* of a veteran's living expenses and educational expenses. They were designed to *assist* him in defraying the costs of an education (or training) program, and to *assist* him in providing for a part of his (and his dependent's) living costs. The Report itself makes this statement: "The GI Bill has traditionally been only an element—but a major one—in the living funds available to veterans. It has not been enough to support even a single veteran in most locations, particularly today with the cost of living continuing to rise."

Yet, the Report does not call for mere cost-of-living adjustments; rather, it "finds" on the one hand (Finding No. 7), that if a veteran applies his educational allowances toward payment of tuition and other expenses (even at a public institution), "the benefits remaining are insufficient to meet the veteran's estimated living expenses;" and on the other hand (Finding No. 8), that when the veteran's resources are compared to his living expenses, "substantial need exists for additional resources to meet educational costs." (The Report notes that this problem is intensified for a veteran who wishes to attend a private institution since average costs for such schools have risen 5-fold on the average since WWII, as compared to about 2½-fold for public schools. Thus far, over 81% of the Vietnam veterans using their benefits for post-secondary schooling have chosen public institutions).

VA does not agree that a major change should be made in the nature of the GI educational assistance. Moreover, VA believes it important to retain a reasonable relationship between the educational assistance provided to nonservice-disabled veterans (intended to be a partial support program) and the vocational rehabilitation assistance provided to service-disabled veterans (intended to be a full-support program). As to the GI Bill students, the Report notes that even those institutions which provide financial assistance "expect that students will provide some portion of their own expenses from their own efforts." Just as in the case of World War II veterans, this "self-help" can take many forms. The Report mentions: contributions from personal savings, part-time work, and spouse's earnings. Also, there are various types of Federal loans or grants today that were not available to World War II GI s.

The thrust of the Report's other major "findings" (Nos. 10, 11, and 12) in this area has to do with the geographic availability of relatively low-cost educational institutions. The Report contends that, "The veteran residing in a State with a well-developed system of low-cost institutions has significantly more of his benefits available to help defray living expenses than would his counterpart living in a State without such a system;" and, therefore, "The accessibility of post-secondary education for the Vietnam veteran is a function of not only his military service but also his particular State of residence."

Concerning this issue, the Report concludes: "To restore equity between veterans residing in different States with different systems of public education, some form of variable payments to institutions to ameliorate the difference in institutional costs would be required."

It is clear, of course, that the Report is not here speaking of comparability between Vietnam veterans and those of earlier conflicts, but between Vietnam veterans and Vietnam veterans; i.e., those living in States which support public educational institutions heavily, compared to those in States which do not.

It is believed that this suggestion concerning "variable payments" based on State of residence would create considerably more problems than the one it is intended to overcome. Also, this approach would be inconsistent with that generally applicable in the dispensation of Federal veterans' benefits. VA does not recommend it for consideration by the Congress.

Scope of programs

The Report contains considerable discussion and data as to the scope of the education and training programs for Vietnam veterans, and certain comparisons are made as to similar programs for veterans of the earlier conflicts, especially as to the World War II programs concerning on-farm training, on-the-job training, flight training, and training by correspondence. While the Report does not offer definitive findings or conclusions relative to the scope of programs for Vietnam veterans, it clearly indicates that the scope of programs today is broader than previously available. This is particularly true for the educationally disadvantaged who, in the words of the Report, "are receiving more attention with regard to special education and training programs than have disadvantaged veterans of the two previous conflicts."

Concerning these special programs (not available to veterans of the other eras) the Report carries the following statement:

"VA special programs, including free entitlement, PREP, tutorial assistance and work-study represent an increased awareness on the part of the VA of educational deficiencies which have traditionally stifled the career and training aspirations of a minority of veterans eligible for benefits. Although the effects of these programs on overall participation rates cannot be gauged precisely, free entitlement and PREP have undoubtedly enabled a greater number of disadvantaged Vietnam Era veterans to enter postsecondary programs of some sort. Furthermore, the work-study program, although still in its initial stages, has tremendous potential for providing financial assistance to veterans currently not in training due to lack of funds."

In addition, the Report identifies and describes a number of other (non-VA) Federal programs concerned with support of education and training, and which can be of assistance to Vietnam Era veterans, but which were generally not available for veterans of the other two eras.

Information and Outreach Efforts

The Report states that "The outreach efforts of the VA have been successful in informing veterans, especially the educationally disadvantaged, that benefits are available."

On the other hand, the Report contends that "in both informing and counseling, there has been a decrease in personal contact," and that "the quantity of counseling to veterans under the GI Bill has declined over the three periods."

It is true that the quantity of counseling provided by VA has declined over the three periods; however, as the Report also points out, this decline should be viewed in the context of the marked increase that has occurred since World War II in counseling services available to veterans, and others, from college and university counseling centers and other sources.

It is also true that there has been a decrease shown in VA's personal contact with Vietnam veterans. There are reasons for this, one being the decline in dischargees from the military. The number of newly discharged veterans notified by the VA of benefits peaked in fiscal year 1970; the present discharge rate is 47% of the 1970 total. The number of educationally disadvantaged has dropped at an even more dramatic rate. Meanwhile, as the Report makes clear, VA has initiated other efforts to contact and inform veterans: "The VA has shifted from a passive information role of responding to inquiries to one that actively seeks to inform the veteran of his benefits. The outreach effort includes such programs as overseas orientations, presentations at separation points, a series of letters mailed to recently returned veterans, one-stop assistance centers, mobile vans, and toll-free telephone lines."

The Report also notes that the VA has supplied certain veterans' service organizations with lists of the newly discharged in an effort to take advantage of their local organizations and channels of communication.

On balance, it is believed that the Report demonstrates that the Vietnam veteran—from the six points of view specified in the law, and reviewed above—does have availability to educational assistance benefits from the VA that are comparable to those extended to veterans of World War II and the Korean conflict. VA also believes that the Educational Testing Service has prepared a commendable report, considering the limitations of time and scarcity of pertinent data in some areas. It is a valuable collection, in one document, of a vast amount of data on or related to the veterans' education and training programs.

At the same time, VA does have a number of reservations as to certain of the Report's "Findings and conclusions" and as to the validity of some of ETS's analyses or interpretations of certain data referred to or contained in the Report. Several of our reservations are mentioned above.

Meanwhile, I have received from the Chairman of the House Committee on Veterans' Affairs, under date of September 7, 1973, a request that VA submit to his Committee a thoroughly detailed analysis of the Report, "indicating agreement or disagreement with the major findings and conclusions, together with such discussion and data as is considered necessary to substantiate the positions taken by the Veterans Administration." The Chairman also asked for information concerning any of the statistical material in the Report, or the interpretation placed on this material, with which VA may be in disagreement. Time has not permitted us to complete this analysis but it will be accomplished and transmitted to Chairman Dorn in the very near future.

Additionally, the Chairman's letter calls upon VA to conduct an extensive survey to determine the cost impact (including on individual trainees) of reverting to a World War II type program, whereby payments were made direct to institutions covering the cost of a veteran's tuition, books, fees, and supplies, and a separate "subsistence allowance" was paid directly to the veteran. VA is presently preparing a design for such a study and will keep Chairman Dorn and other interested persons and organizations informed as to our progress in this regard.

Respectfully,

DONALD E. JOHNSON,
Administrator.

SEPTEMBER 10, 1973.

Hon. DONALD E. JOHNSON,
Administrator of Veterans Affairs, Veterans Administration, Washington, D.C.

DEAR MR. JOHNSON: Your Advisory Committee on Education and Rehabilitation respectfully forwards its recommendations to you on the Independent Study, Public Law 92-540, Section 413.

The Committee received the final report from Educational Testing Service to the Administrator on September 8, 1973. In review of the Study, the Committee offers the following general observations:

1. The Study provided limited coverage to the "purposes" of the Study as specified in the law. Reasons for the limitations are presented in the preface section of the Study report.

2. The conclusions and findings appeared to be somewhat "selective" in terms of the broad aspects of the Study, such as conclusions regarding counseling "personal contact," veterans service organizations, and correspondence courses.

3. The Study concentrated on college level programs and minimized attention to below college level, on-the-job training, vocational education and related programs.

4. The ETS should be commended for the amount of valuable data on veterans benefits collected and presented in a limited time.

5. The Veterans Administration Internal Liaison Committee is commended for its cooperation and efforts in providing assistance to the Educational Testing Service.

The Committee offers the following comments and/or recommendations in relations to specific "purposes" of the Study.

1. *Scope of Programs.*—Data contained in the Study indicate that the scope of Veterans' Administration programs is broader today than previously available in the other two eras. However, the Study does not contain definitive conclusions on the comparison of the scope of the programs in the three eras.

On the other hand, it did conclude on the State Approving Agencies that traditionally it has been the policy of the Federal Government that no department, agency, or officer of the United States shall exercise any supervision or control, whatsoever, over any State Approving Agency, or State education agency, or any educational institution. In light of this policy, the Committee recommends that (1) the Administrator examine the efforts that are now being made within that framework to determine if they have been effective; and (2) To the extent that they have not been, the Committee recommends that the Administrator ask the Congress to address itself to the question as to whether or not the national policy should be changed to permit more efforts so that the veteran may receive better dollar value for the funds expended.

The Committee further recommends that the VA carefully review the performance of SAA's in terms of the standards and criteria they maintain in approving educational institutions for veterans.

2. *Veteran Participation.*—Although isolated comparisons of participation rates based on specific time periods and addressed to certain groups may show less participation of Vietnam era veterans, the general over-all comparisons reveal that anticipated participation rates of Vietnam era veterans will be equal to, or greater than, the past eras.

Even though the Committee recognizes the increased efforts made by the VA as to the educationally disadvantaged and minority veterans, the Committee recommends that the VA give optimal effort toward developing new and innovative approaches to increase the participation rate of these veterans.

3. *Adequacy of Benefit Level.*—In the "adequacy of benefits" aspect of the Study and the related conclusions drawn, the Advisory Committee assumes that the intent of the legislation for the "GI Bill" of the three eras was to provide "assistance" to veterans and not to provide the full costs of educational and living expenses.

The Study shows that the benefits being paid to the majority of Vietnam veterans attending colleges is more adequate today than in WW II. This is true due to the higher percentage of veterans attending public two and four year institutions compared to WW II.

On the issue of should benefits be higher for veterans attending private institutions and higher costing public institutions in some States, the Advisory Committee recognizes that this is a congressional public policy matter.

4. *Information and Outreach Efforts.*—Concerning information and outreach efforts, the Advisory Committee notes the findings of the Study show that the efforts have increased while public attention and attitudes are less positive than in WW II. The Committee points out that the Study did not investigate the quality of counseling efforts, but only covered the quantitative aspects. The Committee believes it important that despite the finding that there is less "personal contact today, the VA uses other means of contacting veterans, such as institutional veterans counselors. The Committee commends the VA on its shift from a passive informative agency to one actively seeking to inform veterans of their benefits, and recommends the continuance of this positive approach.

The Advisory Committee notes that observations in the Study in respect to attention given veterans by the various service organizations, and their influence, may have some factual basis; but some statements in the Study are misleading, such as reference to the work of the U.S. Veterans Advisory Commission. The observations need to be considered in the light of today's conditions compared to past eras, the posture of national policy on veterans benefits, and the changing role of veterans organizations in the three eras.

5. *Safeguards Against Abuse.*—The Committee cites that the Study limited its investigation of the "nature and degree of abuses in the programs" to mainly correspondence courses. The Committee concurs with findings and conclusions on correspondence courses that question the advertising, sales procedures, and educational quality of some schools. The Committee notes that the Study does indicate that the abuses of WW II have been minimized, but does not elaborate with specific examples. Also, an exploration of "safeguards" for educational assistance programs is absent in the Study. Therefore, the Committee recommends that VA continue reviewing its programs and op-

erations for all possible abuses and establish any necessary safeguards.

6. *Administration.*—On the aspect concerning the administration and execution of the education and training programs, the Committee concurs in the conclusions reported in the Study and the VA has administered the programs responsibly and effectively over the three eras.

However, the Committee recommends that the VA assume a more positive leadership and coordinating role among other federal agencies.

The Committee recognizes the negative connotations on vocational education and recommends that Congress be urged to review its legislation to insure equal treatment and status for vocational education programs for veterans.

Respectfully yours,

William M. Detweiler,
Vice Chairman, Administrator's Advisory Committee on Education and Rehabilitation, and Chairman, Subcommittee on the Independent Study.

Final Report

Contract No. V101(134)P-171

EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE TO VETERANS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THREE GI BILLS

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and

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with

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Educational Testing Service
Princeton, New Jersey

September, 1973

The research reported herein was performed pursuant to a contract with the Veterans Administration. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Veterans Administration position or policy.

PREFACE

The primary objective of the present study is to provide an independent comparison of the educational assistance benefits available to returning servicemen under the three GI Bills that have been in effect since 1944. To study the totality of benefits would involve the consideration of the activities of over 29 million men and women (who together with their dependents make up 48 percent of the American population) over a period of 30 years. It would involve consideration of the more than $120 billion spent by the United States government to provide them with benefits -- of which $24.6 billion has been spent on education. A study which, by law, was to be conducted within six months could not attempt an investigation of that magnitude. Limiting the study to only educational assistance benefits left the remaining task an enormous one. As a consequence, this report is subject to a number of inherent limitations.

The most pressing limitation under which the study staff has functioned has been that of time. Proposals for the study were requested by the Veterans Administration on May 4, 1973, with a submission date of May 17, 1973. The award to Educational Testing Service was made by the Veterans Administration on Friday, May 25, 1973. Delivery of the final draft report for review with the Advisory Committee was required by August 21, 1973. Clearly, a total time frame of some 87 days must be considered in reviewing the final report.

This time frame required that the scope of the study be focused on those areas where the bulk of the benefits are directed. Most of the information in this report deals with the almost 1.4 million veterans receiving educational benefits. Trainees who are on active duty in the Armed Forces are not considered in any detail. Some data are included on the 19.5 thousand vocational rehabilitation trainees and the 45.8 thousand dependents (wives, widows, and children) who were receiving benefits as of April 1973.

A second major limitation involved the basic non-comparability of many of the benefit programs and data that were or are now available. In the original GI Bill, for example, there were provisions for veterans to be trained on the farm in order to provide comparable benefits for farmers as were being provided for college students and apprentices. Social and economic changes since that time, however, have reduced the need for on-the-job farm training in favor of programs at the collegiate level to train farm managers and technicians. This shift has been recognized by the phasing out of the Farm Training Program, so that comparisons cannot be made.

The problem of data comparability is perhaps best demonstrated in the matter of ethnic group membership identification. Information about ethnic group membership was collected following World War II. These data were not collected during the Korean Conflict, but some sample data on such veterans of the Vietnam Era has been made available. The gap makes any significant comparison on ethnic group membership difficult.

The limited time in which the study was to be conducted precluded our ability to conduct any surveys of veterans, institutions, or others concerned with the education, training or rehabilitation of the veteran of the Vietnam Conflict. The clearance requirements for surveys conducted with federal funds are such that little if any time would have been available for analysis and inclusion in this report. We were fortunate in gaining access to a large sample of previously unavailable data relating to veterans' estimates of educational costs and the resources they had available to meet those costs from financial statements filed with the College Scholarship Service of the College Entrance Examination Board. In addition, a special analysis of data on veterans in postsecondary education in the State of California was carried out using information from a survey conducted by the California State Scholarship and Loan Commission.

The inability to collect original data may help to explain gaps in the data base which could possibly have been discovered or derived from other sources. In most instances, it was necessary to rely on data collected by the Veterans Administration. In some cases there are data being collected but not tabulated in any meaningful way. In other cases there are data which are not being collected but which would have been useful. Many questions remain to which this study should have given attention, but which cannot be answered because the data have not been collected.

It has been necessary to rely heavily on the Veterans Administration for information, advice, and data. In many areas the only source of information available has been from VA files. Within limits we have added outside data, comparisons made by others, and independent contributions. We have attempted to review these data in an independent manner and our conclusions and findings are those of the staff and no others. We acknowledge the comments and suggestions made by members of the study subcommittee of the Administrator's Education and Rehabilitation Advisory Committee (listed in Appendix C) during the progress report briefings on June 22, 1973 and July 20, 1973 and those of the Committee at its August 30, 1973 meeting.

We are grateful to our Ad Hoc Advisory Panel, whose members (listed in Appendix C) were most helpful in suggesting sources of data, possible approaches, relevant social and other contexts, and made themselves available for additional inquiries and consultations during the progress of the study. The pressure of time has precluded their review of this study prior to submission. We appreciate their contributions but must absolve them of any responsibility.

We wish to acknowledge the excellent cooperation of the VA Project Officer, Dr. Andrew S. Adams, and the members of the VA Internal Liaison Committee; Mr. Fred H. Branan, Mr. Robert Dysland, Mr. William J. Fallwell, Mr. Andrew H. Thornton, and Mr. Frank H. F. White. Their comprehensive knowledge of data sources within the Veterans Administration and willingness to spend long hours with staff was of material assistance in the data collection effort.

In addition to the staff named as authors of this report, we would like to recognize our consultants to the study, George E. Arnstein and William D. Van Dusen, for their extensive roles in the project and to James J. Treires for his expert editorial assistance.

We are especially indebted to Mary Dilworth, our Administrative Assistant, who, in addition to maintaining the office and staff on an even keel, was responsible for the list of interviewees and the bibliography. Mrs. Rose White was unfailingly cheerful in meeting the secretarial demands

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The cover photograph is through the courtesy of the U.S. Air Force.

While this study was benefitted from the advice and cooperation of many persons, and which has had frequent communication with the Veterans Administration, the analyses, findings, and conclusions are solely those of the study staff.

James L. Bowman
Project Director

Princeton, New Jersey
September, 1973

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Chapter 1

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

There is no doubt that the World War II GI Bill was one of the most important and effective pieces of social legislation Congress had ever enacted. It profoundly affected the fortunes of veterans and postwar society, and it transformed the nation's higher education system. But images from the past should not govern our perception of current realities and future alternatives. The GI Bill may not be doing as much today for veterans as it did in the past, or as it might do tomorrow.

This latter point was recognized by the Congress during its deliberation on the Vietnam Era Veterans Readjustment Assistance Act of 1972 (PL 92-540). Section 413 of that Act required that:

> "The Administrator, in consultation with the advisory committee formed pursuant to section 1792 of this title (as redesignated by section 316(2) of this Act), shall provide for the conduct of an independent study of the operation of the post-Korean conflict program of educational assistance currently carried out under chapters 31, 34, 35, and 36 of this title in comparison with similar programs of educational assistance that were available to veterans of World War II and of the Korean conflict from the point of view of administration; veteran participation; safeguards against abuse; and adequacy of benefit level, scope of programs, and information and outreach efforts to meet the various education and training needs of eligible veterans. The results of such study, together with such recommendations as are warranted to improve the present program, shall be transmitted to the President and the Congress within six months after the date of enactment of this Act."

In his Request for a Proposal for the study, the Administrator indicated that the purpose of the study was:

> "To compare the operation of the post-Korean Conflict program of educational assistance currently being carried out by the Veterans Administration with similar programs of educational assistance that the Veterans Administration made available to veterans of World War II and the Korean Conflict in the following aspects:
>
> The scope and quality of the educational and training programs.
>
> The degree of veterans participation in the programs.
>
> The adequacy of the program benefits to veterans, educational and training institutions, work force, and American society.
>
> The available information and outreach efforts to meet the various educational and training needs of eligible veterans.
>
> The nature and degree of abuses in the programs and the effectiveness of the safeguards established.
>
> The execution and administration of the educational and training programs."

It should be noted that the total report consists of some 339 pages plus three appendices that have attempted to meet these named needs and purposes in the very limited time available. Because of the availability and accessibility of information, some of the aspects enumerated have been covered in greater detail than others -- this does not negate their importance -- but suggests that further study and information is needed in those areas before further conclusions can be reached.

Those findings and conclusions reached in the course of the study, which seem to be of particular relevance are highlighted in the following sections. They are not, however, a total summary of the report:

A. The Scope and Quality of the Educational and Training Programs

Significant information is contained in the report regarding the scope of the educational and training programs currently existing. Only limited information has been obtainable regarding the quality of the education and training programs, an area that most particularly warrants further study in the future. Under current procedures the State Approving Agencies are designated to assess the quality of education of courses and training establishments for veterans. However:

1. *The Veterans Administration has currently no means of measuring the quality of the performance of the State Approving Agencies and therefore cannot be assured that the money used to reimburse these agencies was wisely spent.*

The State Approving Agencies are designated to assess the quality of education of courses and training establishments for veterans. In 1973, the State Approving Agencies were authorized to be reimbursed $10.6 million by the VA for their services. However, there is no way to determine whether this money was wisely spent.

While prohibited by law from exerting any control over the State Approving Agencies, the VA is not prohibited from evaluating their performance. Yet to date, little has been done to compile information that would allow an accurate evaluation of the performance of their agencies.

B. The Degree of Veterans Participation in the Program

2. *While the participation rate of Vietnam Era veterans is approaching that of World War II, this is not an adequate indicator of the effectiveness of veterans educational assistance.*

A fair comparison of participation rates under the three GI Bills must be based on more information than the percentage of eligible veterans who use their educational benefits. Additional factors such as the demographic composition of the Armed Forces, discharge rates, and eligibility requirements must be considered.

Since servicemen on active duty are eligible for benefits under the Vietnam Era program, participation rates which include them are not comparable to those from the World War II and Korean periods.

At the time of separation from the Armed Forces, the Vietnam Era veteran is better educated, younger, and has fewer dependents than veterans of World War II. These factors suggest that the Vietnam Era veteran should be better suited to pursue post-service education; however, Vietnam veterans have not participated at a higher rate than World War II veterans. Although enrollment in all types of postsecondary education has increased, the usage of the GI Bill over the three periods has remained about the same.

In view of these factors, equality of participation rates for the three GI Bills is not an adequate measure of their relative success in providing readjustment assistance. If 48 percent of the veterans of World War II used their benefits when postsecondary education played a much less important role in career preparation, veterans of the current period should be expected to use their benefits at a higher rate to parallel the corresponding increase in enrollment in postsecondary education.

3. *The rate of participation in educational benefits among black veterans is substantially below that of white veterans and the overall participation rate. This is partly due to differences in age, unemployment, financial stability and dependency status. It appears that current efforts need augmentations in order to further motivate the black veteran to enter training.*

The participation rate among black veterans of the Korean Conflict is estimated to be about 53 percent. However, the current participation rate for black veterans is less than 25 percent.

The participation of black veterans is also substantially below the current participation rate for all veterans. The educationally disadvantaged black, participates in training at only one-third the rate of blacks with a high school education, but at a higher rate than white disadvantaged veterans.

The VA work-study program, if expanded to include the "need to augment subsistence allowance" as a major criterion for participation in the program, together with the initiation of Advance Payment, may increase the number of black veterans in training.

4. *Educationally disadvantaged Vietnam Era veterans, both white and black, are receiving more attention with regard to special education and training programs than have disadvantaged veterans of the two previous conflicts. Nevertheless, they currently still participate in educational programs at a much lower than average rate.*

The establishment of free-entitlement, the Predischarge Education Program, and Project Transition are positive responses to the need among the disadvantaged to secure a high school education or other educational preparation prior to the pursuit of a postsecondary program. Tutorial assistance, though not a program exclusively for the disadvantaged, may be addressed to the academic problems of the disadvantaged in training.

Outreach lists (lists of the educationally disadvantaged) which are circulated by the VA to concerned organizations further illustrate the increased efforts to assist the disadvantaged.

5. *Vietnam veterans are more likely to participate at less than full time rates than World War II and Korean veterans.*

The proportion of veterans participating in full-time training has continued to decline since the World War II period. Since today's veteran is younger and has fewer dependents than veterans of World War II, one would expect the Vietnam Era veteran to participate more in full-time training; however, this is not the case.

Veterans in higher education today are slightly less likely to attend full-time than non-veterans; 68 percent of all students attending institutions of higher learning are full-time compared to 65 percent of veterans.

While enrollment in part-time educational programs is more popular today than in 1945, this is more reason to expect an increase in part-time training than a decrease in full-time training. An analysis of participation rates shows that both full-time and part-time rates for the current program are below the rates for the World War II GI Bill.

C. The Adequacy of the Program Benefits to Veterans, Educational and Training Institutions, Work-Force, and American Society

Only limited information is currently available with respect to the adequacy of the benefits for the work-force as a whole or their impact on American Society. The impact concentrates on the adequacy of the program benefits with respect to veterans in light of changes in the economic variables over time:

6. *In general, the "real value" of the educational allowance available to veterans of World War II was greater than the current allowance being paid to veterans of the Vietnam Conflict when adjustments are made for the payment of tuition, fees, books and supplies.*

The current level of benefits, when adjusted for the average cost of tuition, fees, books and supplies at a 4-year public institution, represent a significantly smaller proportion of U.S. average monthly earnings than did the subsistence allowance paid to the veteran of World War II. This is true whether the veteran is attending a 4-year or 2-year public college, whether he is single or has dependents.

Only when the Vietnam veteran's expenditures for tuition, fees, books and supplies are equal to or less than the average for 4-year public institutions are his allowances slightly higher than the subsistence allowance paid his World War II counterpart adjusted for changes in the Consumer Price Index.

Unlike the veteran of World War II, the Vietnam Conflict veteran finds a wide variance in the portion of his educational allowance available for subsistence payments, depending on the tuition and fees of the institution attended.

Comparison of this nature does not take into consideration the "real cost" of living that the veterans face. From this point of view, the World War II veteran was generally better off because many institutions provided special low-cost veterans housing and other special benefits. Institutions today provide little if any special assistance to veterans with respect to housing and other services, i.e., employment for spouse, nursery care, etc.

7. *When educational allowances for the Vietnam veteran are adjusted for the average tuition, fees, books and supplies at a 4-year public institution, the benefits remaining are insufficient to meet the veteran's estimated living expenses.*

Remaining benefits available for subsistence purposes range from some 63 percent of estimated living expenses for single veterans to only 50 percent of estimated living expenses for those veterans who are married. The single veteran would require $728 in additional resources, a married veteran with no children would need $1,644 and, if he had children, would require over $2,000 in resources over and above the current allowances.

To the extent that tuition, fees, books and supplies exceed the average for an individual veteran at a 4-year public institution, that portion of his allowances available for subsistence purposes are correspondingly reduced and his need for additional resources increased.

8. *When total resources available to the veteran for an academic year are compared with his estimated living expenses for a similar period, substantial need exists for additional resources to meet educational costs.*

Estimated resources from all sources are insufficient to meet the estimated living and educational expenses of single veterans and married veterans with children. Only the married veteran with a working spouse contributing over $2,400 to his educational and living expenses has sufficient resources to meet estimated living and average educational expenses.

9. *While other federally funded student aid programs are available to veterans to assist in the financing of their postsecondary education, it appears that participation by veterans of the Vietnam Conflict has been relatively small.*

The small participation of veterans in these other federally funded student aid programs may be attributable to the policy of institutional financial aid officers of giving priority in the allocation of financial aid resources to those students with the greatest financial need.

Estimates of participation, based on those veterans attending institutions of higher education in California, ranged from less than 2.5 percent in those programs providing grant funds to a maximum of 10 percent participation in the Federally Insured Loan Program. Since the veteran has resources available to him through the GI Bill, the institution may reason that he could otherwise attend and, therefore, reserve the other student aid funds for students who do not have significant resources of their own.

The average veteran, faced with insufficient resources to meet his estimated expenses for living plus institutional costs, must either arrange for additional financial resources outside the normal student aid funding sources or seek out a lower-cost institution where such is available.

10. *The accessibility of postsecondary education for the Vietnam Conflict veteran is a function of not only his military service but also his particular state of residence. The effectiveness of the benefits is directly related to the availability of low-cost readily accessible public institutions. The current veteran seeking to use his educational benefits finds that equal military service does not provide equal readjustment opportunities with respect to attendance at postsecondary schools. This is particularly true of institutions of higher education.*

The maximum allowance for payment of tuition, fees, books and supplies provided veterans of World War II allowed them to attend almost any postsecondary institution. At institutions of higher education, veterans were about equally divided between public and private institutions.

Since World War II, tuition levels and other costs at institutions of higher learning have increased substantially and today are two to three times greater. Concomitant with increases in tuition has come a decided shift in total college enrollment from private to public institutions. Since tuition payments reduce funds available for subsistence, the current veteran is attending public institutions to a far greater extent than his non-veteran counterpart. Veteran attendance at low-cost 2-year public institutions is over one and one-third times as great.

Those states with the most highly developed low-cost public educational systems have the greatest degree of participation by Vietnam veterans. There is a strong presumption that veterans living in states without such development benefit less from the GI Bill because they cannot meet the combined costs of education and subsistence.

11. *It appears that the states are subsidizing the cost of education for veterans of the Vietnam Conflict as compared with earlier subsidization by the Veterans Administration. Since higher costs of education appear to reduce participation, this is a significant factor in determining whether the veteran in a particular state will participate in education.*

Analysis of participation rates by state indicate a high correlation between participation and the availability of low-cost easily accessible institutions of higher learning. Veterans have been somewhat less likely to attend private institutions of postsecondary education than have non-veterans; however, the gap has increased today. The continued lack of a direct tuition payment is a probable education than have non-veterans; however, the gap has increased from a 1 percent differential in World War II to a 7 percent differential today. The continued lack of a direct tuition payment is a probable cause. Due to lower costs, Vietnam veterans tend to enroll in community and junior colleges to a greater extent than non-veterans. Thirty-nine percent of Vietnam veterans enrolled in institutions of higher learning are attending community colleges as compared to 29 percent of non-veterans. Participation tends to be high in those states that spend the most money per capita on higher education.

12. *Current benefit levels, requiring as they do the payment of tuition, fees, books and supplies, and living expenses, provide the basis for "unequal treatment of equals." To restore equity between veterans residing in different states with differing systems of public education, some form of variable payments to institutions to ameliorate the differences in institutional costs would be required.*

Generally speaking, the average estimated living expenses will not vary significantly by type of institution attended. However, the amount of benefits available to meet those expenses does vary depending on the availability and type of institution attended.

The veteran residing in a state with a well-developed system of low-cost institutions has significantly more of his benefits available to help defray living expenses than would his counterpart living in a state without such a system.

D. The Available Information and Outreach Efforts to Meet the Various Educational and Training Needs of Eligible Veterans

13. *The outreach efforts of the VA have been successful in informing veterans, especially the educationally disadvantaged, that benefits are available. But in both informing and counseling, there has been a decrease in personal contact.*

There were 1,240 contact locations and 6,492 contact employees in 1947. In 1972 there were 247 contact locations and 1,835 contact employees. While the VA has reduced its personal contact with veterans, other efforts have been initiated to contact and inform veterans. The VA has shifted from a passive information role of responding to inquiries to one that actively seeks to inform the veteran of his benefits. The outreach effort includes such programs as overseas orientations, presentations at separation points, a series of letters mailed to recently returned veterans, one-stop assistance centers, mobile vans, and toll-free telephone lines.

14. *The quantity of counseling to veterans under the GI Bill has declined over the three periods.*

The percent of veterans counseled has declined from 12.9 percent under PL 346 and 10.2 percent under PL 550 to 3.8 percent under PL 358 through FY 1973. This decline is especially unfortunate in light of the success of the early counseling program which was both extensive and innovative.

15. *Public attention to veterans and their problems today appears to be of lesser magnitude than during the post-World War II period, though it may be more comparable to that of the Korean Conflict period. Public attitudes toward veterans and wars fought have also changed markedly.*

Surveys of Readers Guide to Periodical Literature and the New York Times Index show that the number of articles and stories about veterans and their problems after World War II was more than ten times as great as during and after Korea and Vietnam.

Public attitudes about the wars themselves appear to "rub off" on attitudes toward veterans of those wars. A plurality of those questioned in a recent study by Louis Harris, for example, view Vietnam veterans as "suckers" who were "taken advantage of." Of all veterans polled by Harris, 53 percent felt that the public's reception of today's veteran is worse than in the past.

16. *Vietnam veterans appear at a disadvantage when compared with veterans of World War II in terms of the attention to their needs provided and generated by major veterans organizations.*

While services performed for veterans have remained similar, lobbying and public information efforts of the major veterans groups have become more moderate in recent years and contrast vividly with efforts on educational benefits on behalf of World War II veterans. Some of their recent outreach efforts show increased attention to the needs of disadvantaged veterans, but recent surveys show relatively low membership by minorities and central city residents in these organizations.

E. The Nature and Degree of Abuses in the Programs and the Effectiveness of the Safeguards Established.

The singular lack of significant publicity with respect to widespread abuses in the various educational and training programs today -- in contrast to those of WW II -- is indicative of both safeguards and changes in conditions over time. Many of the abuses and problems in the educational and training programs following WW II were the result of the sheer volume of trainees at a particular point in time and a lack of previous involvement of federal programs in the educational process. The probability of such abuses occurring at the present time would appear to be minimized due to the widespread experience and interaction of the federal government and the educational community in a wide variety of financial programs and the absence of a large volume of veterans entering educational institutions simultaneously. Some problem areas still remain.

17. *While progress has been made toward reducing abuses in training by correspondence, some problems remain which warrant careful scrutiny and safeguards.*

Veteran participation in training by correspondence has increased substantially in recent years, but completion rates appear to be low.

It appears that problems involving the advertising and sales function of some schools remain, though they are less flagrant than in previous years.

The functioning of the State Approving Agencies and their contractual relationship with the VA does not appear to provide for any systematic assurance of the soundness or educational quality of the correspondence courses. To date, no comprehensive assessment of the effectiveness of existing home-study programs and policies has been undertaken.

F. The Execution and Administration of the Educational and Training Programs

18. *In general, the Veterans Administration has administered the education benefits programs effectively and responsibly over the three Conflict periods.*

The organizational history of the VA is highlighted by developments reflecting functional changes based on operating experience and the establishment of legislative safeguards. While great progress has been made in reducing abuses in the programs and operational inefficiencies, there are some remaining problems:

Some delays are caused by the failure of educational institutions to promptly certify veterans enrollment in their schools. Some delays are caused by errors and backlogs in the processing of educational applications and claims in the Regional Offices. The VA appears to be taking steps to improve its service to veterans in this regard through instituting several new procedures, but it is too early to evaluate the effectiveness of these changes.

19. *Differences in treatment of veterans pursuing college degrees and veterans pursuing non-degree postsecondary educational programs may be inhibiting the use of benefits for below college level training.*

There are several policies regarding progress and attendance that clearly show differential treatment between veterans in degree-granting programs and veterans pursuing other postsecondary educational programs. These policies, which include clock hour vs. credit hour policies, certification of attendance requirements, and change of course requirements, are based on an educational situation that was the standard 23 years ago, but is no longer applicable.

The application of these differential policies places constraints on veterans pursuing non-degree programs, such as vocational or technical programs, and may be discouraging veterans from pursuing these programs. Participation rates which have indicated a decline in below college level education suggest that these policies have had a detrimental effect on enrollment in non-degree educational programs; this is particularly inappropriate at a time when there is increased emphasis on this form of education in legislation, government programs, and projections of manpower needs.

20. *The limited effect of other Federal agencies' efforts to provide education and training to veterans has been due in part to a lack of overall direction, leadership and coordination. Although the degree of coordination between the VA and other agencies is greater now than during the previous two conflict periods, it remains limited. When the VA has exercised initiative and leadership the results have been good.*

The VA has increased its participation on interagency committees and increased its working relationships with Federal agencies. However, the VA's coordination effort varies greatly from agency to agency. With some agencies and organizations the VA has built ongoing working relationships at both the national and local levels. On the other hand, coordination with the plethora of local level community services is left to the discretion of the regional or field office.

21. *Other Federal agencies have increased the scope of their assistance efforts for both the general public and for veterans over what they were during the post-World War II and Korean Conflict eras. However, many of these efforts are limited in the effect they will have on the Vietnam Era veterans.*

Federal agencies other than the VA are providing a much greater degree of assistance to the education and training needs of veterans than during the post-World War II and Korean eras. In fact, the Manpower Administration, the Office of Economic Opportunity, and most of the aid programs of the Office of Education did not exist during the earlier periods so that strict comparisons cannot be made. Although the number of veterans served by these programs represent a formidable achievement, it must be placed in the context of greater Federal involvement in education and manpower policy in general. Furthermore, the special efforts to provide services to veterans have come at a late point in the Vietnam Era and some have suffered budgetary cutbacks, significantly limiting their effect.

Chapter 2

AN OVERVIEW OF THE THREE GI BILLS

Educational assistance to veterans has been provided by three distinct programs for veterans of World War II, the Korean Conflict, and the post-Korean period:

The Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, PL346, 78th Congress became law on June 22,1944 and covered service in the Armed Forces between September 16, 1940 through July 25, 1947.

The Korean Conflict legislation, PL550, 82nd Congress became effective August 20, 1952 and covered service between June 27, 1950 through January 31, 1955.

The post-Korean or Cold War GI Bill, PL358, 89th Congress became effective June 1, 1966 and covers service after February 1, 1955.

The stated purpose of each of the three bills has been to provide vocational readjustment and to restore educational opportunities lost due to service in the Armed Forces. The post-Korean Bill adds a third goal making service in the Armed Forces more attractive. (See Appendix A for a detailed comparison of the three GI Bills.)

Basic Entitlement Period

The World War II GI Bill provided a minimum of one year of training plus one month for each month of active duty up to a maximum of 48 months. The Korean GI Bill provided training at the rate of 1-1/2 times active duty time up to a maximum of 36 months. The post-Korean Bill provides training at the same 1-1/2 rate as the Korean Bill but provides the maximum of 36 months after only 18 months of service.

Another change makes servicemen eligible to use their benefits while still in service, after serving a minimum of 181 days. In addition, the post-Korean Bill allows veterans to complete required refresher remedial or deficiency courses without using any of their basic entitlement. Under this provision, a veteran may use his benefits to complete his high school education with no loss of his basic entitlement.

All three bills require that a veteran enroll in an approved course of instruction in order to be eligible for benefits. The GI Bill of 1944 permitted avocational courses; these were banned in 1948, and are not permitted under the latter two bills.

Allowances

A major difference between the World War II GI Bill and the two more recent bills is in the method of computing payments and the amount of those payments. Under the original program of 1944, a veteran's full school costs, including tutition, fees, books, and supplies, were paid directly by the Veterans Administration up to a maximum of $500 per school year. A student was allowed to use his tutition allowance at an accelerated rate to cover his educational costs if they exceeded the $500 figure, with a charge of one day of entitlement for each $2.10 paid. In addition, veterans received a monthly subsistence allowance of $50 which was later increased to $65 in 1946 and $75 in 1948. A statutory ceiling curtailed benefits if a veteran's monthly income rose above $175 if he had no dependents, and $200 if he had dependents. In 1948 this ceiling was raised to $210 for no dependents, $270 for one dependent, and $290 for two or more dependents.

Under the Korean and post-Korean programs, the direct payment of education costs by the Veterans Administration was eliminated. Instead, the veteran receives an "educational assistance" allowance which is intended to meet in part his living expenses and his educational costs. The Korean Conflict Bill provided a monthly allowance of $110 for a full-time student with no dependents. A veteran with one dependent received $135 and those with more than one dependent received $160. The post Korean program provided an educational assistance allowance of $100 in 1966 which was raised periodically to its present level of $220 for a veteran with no dependents. A veteran with one dependent receives $261 while those with two receive $298 and those with more than two receive $18 for each additional dependent. (See Appendix A-1 for detailed allowance schedule).

Training Time Requirements

Full-time benefits for college students have always been based on a minimum number of semester hours. The World War II minimum was 12 semester hours, the Korean minimum was set at 14 hours, and the current minimum is 14 hours, or 12 if the school considers 12 hours full-time.

Other post-secondary training has clock hour requirements. Since 1950 the requirement for full-time benefits has been 25 hours of instruction per week, or 30 hours attendance in shop practice courses.

World War II veterans were required to begin their training within four years after release from the service and were eligible to draw benefits up to nine years after release. Korean Conflict veterans were allowed to commence training up to three years after release and had eight years of eligibility. The current program has no commencement time specified but retains the eight-year time limit on period of eligibility.

New Programs

The current GI Bill provides benefits not provided under the earlier legislation. Currently, veterans may have tutorial assistance costing up to $50 a month and an overall maximum of $450. As mentioned earlier, educationally disadvantaged servicemen may use GI Bill benefits to complete high school or refresher courses prior to their discharge from the service with no loss of entitlement.

On-the-job, Flight, Correspondence and Farm Training

The on-the-job training program has remained basically the same under the three bills, with increases in basic allowances and a reduction in the full-time requirement from 36 to 30 hours per week in the current legislation. Flight training has undergone several changes. The World War II Bill provided for a susbsistence allowance and allowed training for a private pilot's course, both of which have been eliminated in the present program.

Effective January 1, 1973, veterans are required to pay 10 percent of the cost of correspondence courses. Under the two earlier programs, the full cost was paid with a reduction in entitlement of one-quarter of the elapsed time of the course. Under the present program, entitlement is reduced according to the cost of the course.

During the World War II and Korean programs, the farm training provisions provided individualized instruction on the farm. The present eliminates this, but provides institutional training involving more formalized instruction, reflecting the increased complexity of agricultural management.

Vocational Rehabilitation

In general, the provisions relating to vocational rehabilitation are the same for all three programs. The basic benefits provide up to 48 months of rehabilitation training for an honorably discharged veteran with a service-connected disability. The Veterans Administration pays the full costs of tuition, fees, books, and supplies in addition to a monthly subsistence allowance which is currently $170.

One important differece concerns eligibility of Vietnam Era veterans: vocational rehabilitation benefits can be provided to Vietnam veterans only if the qualifying disability is rated at 30 percent or more, or can be clearly shown to have caused a pronounced employment handicap. For World War II and Korean Conflict veterans, the only requirement was a disability for which compensation could be paid.

Education Assistance for Veterans' Survivors and Dependents

Educational benefits were extended to orphans of servicemen for the first time in 1956. The original War Orphans' EDucational Assistance Act provided educational benefits only for orphans of those who had died because of service-connected disabilities. The benefits were made available to orphans of those who died in World War II as well as the Korean Conflict. The benefits have remained essentially the same since the original act. However, eligibility requirements later were eased to allow educational assistance for the widow of a veteran who died of service-connected causes, the wives and children of veterans who are totally and permanently disabled, and the wives and children of prisoners of war and those listed as missing in action. Allowance levels are comparable to those for veterans with a basic entitlement of 36 months. (See Appendix A for detailed outline of all educational provisions.)

Chapter 3

COMPARABILITY OF BENEFIT LEVELS

How does the level of benefits paid to Vietnam veterans compare with those benefits paid to World War II veterans? Some believe that the assistance now being provided to Vietnam veterans is more or less comparable to the assistance provided World War II veterans. On the other hand, there are those who state that World War II veterans had a much better deal, particularly those who were privileged to attend postsecondary schools whose present tuition rates are so high it is almost impossible for Vietnam veterans to even think about attending them under the current GI Bill. This group points out that within the college-going veteran population, there has been a drift toward the publicly sponsored segment of higher education and that greater use of educational benefits by veterans is more predominant in those states with well-developed systems of low-cost public education -- particularly community colleges.

Concern has been expressed about the distribution of veterans among colleges in view of studies which indicate that where a student goes to college matters almost as much as whether he goes to college. The significantly greater participation of veterans in higher education in those states with well-developed low-cost college systems would indicate that the "real" availability of (or ability to utilize) educational benefits is a function of not only being a veteran but also the function of a particular state of residence.

The purpose of this section is to compare current benefit levels with those available to veterans of World War II and the Korean Conflict, in terms of changes in the Consumer Price Index, growth in per capita income, and changes in educational tuition levels. It will also review the relationship between benefit levels and changes in the college-going population, and the relationship between veterans participation in higher education and state expenditures for education.

The "Real" Value of Educational Benefits

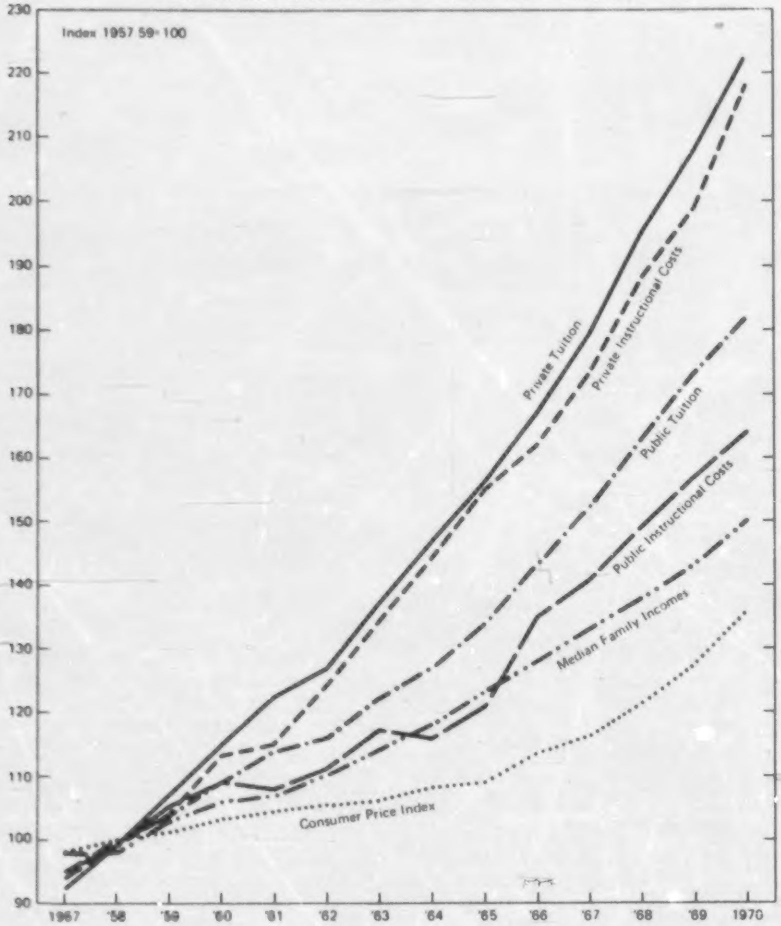
In discussing comparability of educational benefits, it is not sufficient to determine what payments today would be equivalent to those of earlier veterans. It is inappropriate merely to make adjustments for changes in the Consumer Price Index, which represents changes in a broad segment of living costs. It is also necessary to measure changes in the supply side, i.e., changes in the cost of getting an education. The "real" measure or value of the educational benefits is the goods and services that it will purchase. In this case, what type of education is available to the Vietnam veteran on the basis of current benefits vis-a-vis his World War II counterpart?

Discussions of comparability of educational benefits is further complicated by the significant change in the payment of benefits which occurred with the Korean Conflict and subsequent bills versus those authorized for World War II veterans. The World War II GI Bill provided in 1948 for a subsistence allowance of $75 per month while attending an educational institution plus a direct payment to the institution for tuition, fees, books and supplies up to a maximum of $500 per year. The Korean Conflict GI Bill provided for a single payment to the veteran of $110. Under this arrangement, the monthly subsistence rate includes an amount ($35) which was intended to help the veteran meet the educational costs of tuition, fees, books and supplies. The single payment, consisting of both subsistence and an amount to defray educational expenses was continued for veterans of the Vietnam Conflict and is currently $220 per month for a single veteran.

In order to measure comparability of educational benefits, it is necessary to take into consideration the significant changes in the economy that have taken place over the 25 years between 1948 and 1973. During this period, the Consumer Price Index rose from a 1948 average of 72.1 (1967 = 100) to 132.4 as of June 1973. Average monthly earnings rose from $212 in 1948 to some $617 as of May 1973. During the same period, average tuition and fees at 4-year public institutions more than doubled and tuition at 4-year private institutions increased fivefold. Increases of a similar nature occurred in other postsecondary institutions. The most dramatic changes occurred in the decade of the 1960s and continue to the present. The variation in changes are illustrated in Figure 1.

A measure of the "real" value of educational benefits or what dollar amount in benefits would be required to provide parity in purchasing an education between the veteran of World War II and his Vietnam counterpart

Figure 1: TUITION AND FEE CHARGES AND INSTRUCTIONAL COSTS AT PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION, 1957-1970



Source: Pay As You Earn: Staff Papers on Income Contingent Lending
Ford Foundation, June, 1971.

may be ascertained by adjusting the World War II subsistence benefits and educational benefits for changes that have occurred in the Consumer Price Index.

During the period 1948 to mid 1973, the Consumer Price Index rose from 72.1 to 132.4 or a ratio of 1.8363. The changes in average tuition charges over the same period were considerably greater, as illustrated in Table 1 below:

Table 1: AVERAGE TUITION CHARGES, 1948-1972, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

	Tuition Charges			
	Public		Private	
Year	4-year	2-year	4-year	2-year
1948	194	NA	368	NA
1954	150	54	481	321
1960	282	108	1192	654
1966	373	146	1580	1019
1972	419	222	1900	1233
Ratio: 1948-1972	2.15	4.11	5.22	3.94

Source: Derived from Sources of Funds to Colleges and Universities, June A. O'Neill; Projections of Educational Statistics to 1980-81, National Center for Educational Statistics

Using these data, a comparison of educational benefits can be made for those received by veterans of World War II with those currently being received by veterans of the Vietnam Conflict. Such a comparison is shown in Table 2.

It is apparent that the average Vietnam veteran attending a 4-year public or a 2-year public institution has educational benefits slightly higher than his World War II counterpart when adjustments for changes in

Table 2: Comparison of GI Bill Benefits
World War II (1948-49 School Year) US Vietnam Era (1972-73 School Year)
(Based on Single Veteran Rate -- IHL -- 9 Month School Year)

	Average Tuition	Average Books & Supplies	VA Allowance (9 Months-IHL)	VA Allowance Less Tuition Books and Supplies Amount	VA Allowance Less Tuition Books and Supplies Difference From WW-II
World War II[1] 1948-49 School Year 4-Year Public (Current Dollars)	194	50	675	675	
4-Year Public (Constant Dollars)[2]	356	92	1240	1240	
4-Year Private (Current Dollars)	368	50	675	675	
4-Year Private (Constant Dollars[2]	676	92	1240	1240	
Vietnam Era 1972-73 School Year 4-Year Public (Current Dollars	419	216	1980	1345	+105
2-Year Public (Current Dollars)	222	216	1980	1542	+302
4-Year Private (Current Dollars)	1900	216	1980	-136	-1376
2-Year Private (Current Dollars)	1283	216	1980	481	- 759

[1] Ceiling Limitation of $500 on tuition, books and supplies.
[2] 1973 Constant dollars based on: CPI 1967 = 100
1948 Average = 72.1
June, 1973 ==132.4
Ratio = 1.8363

Source: 1948-49: Tuition -- Table 1; 4-year estimates are averages for University and other 4-year colleges;
Books & Supplies -- VA estimate
1972-73: Tuition -- Table 1; Books and Supplies -- Mean amount reported by Veterans students filing Student Financial Statements with the College Scholarship Service for the 1972-73 school year.

the Consumer Price Index are made. It may well be that this slight gain is overstated for it does not take into account the fact that the World War II veteran was often able to take advantage of low-cost veterans' housing and many other special services that are generally not available to veterans of the Vietnam Conflict.

To the extent that a Vietnam veteran is not average, i.e., attending an institution where the tuition exceeds the U. S. average of $419 for a public institution; then his benefits are less than those available to the veteran of World War II. The differential treatment of veterans, depending upon their choice of 4-year public institutions, is illustrated in Table 3 for a representative group of public institutions.

Clearly, there is a wide variance in the funds available to the veteran for living expenses depending upon the state of residence and 4-year public institution available to him.

The Vietnam veteran student desiring to attend a private institution, either vocational-technical or an institution of higher learning, is severely disadvantaged with respect to the veteran of World War II. As illustrated in Table 2 above, the direct tuition payment of World War II covered the average tuition, books and supplies of 4-year private institutions and the VA allowance of $75 per month was available for living expenses. The five-fold increase in the average tuition of 4-year private institutions by 1973, coupled with the cost of books and supplies, requires the Vietnam veteran with current benefits of $1,980 to raise an additional $136 just to meet educational costs -- leaving literally nothing for subsistence.

The GI Bill has traditionally been only an element -- but a major one -- in the living funds available to veterans. It has not been enough to support

Table 3: COSTS OF TUITION, BOOKS AND SUPPLIES, AND REMAINDER OF BENEFITS AVAILABLE FOR LIVING EXPENSES AT SELECTED 4-YEAR PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS, 1972-73

	GI Bill Benefits	Tuition	Average Books and Supply Costs	Remainder for Living Expenses	Living Funds For One Month
U. of California	$1,980	$644	$216	$1,120	$124.44
Florida State	1,980	570	216	1,194	132.67
U. of Illinois	1,980	0*	216	1,764	196.00
U. of Massachusetts	1,980	0*	216	1,764	196.00
U. of Michigan	1,980	696	216	1,068	118.67
U. of Missouri	1,980	540	216	1,224	136.00
State U. of New York	1,980	740/890	216	1,024/874	113.78/97.11
U. of North Carolina	1,980	422	216	1,342	149.11
Penn. State U.	1,980	855	216	909	101.00
Texas Tech. U.	1,980	252	216	1,512	168.00

*Illinois and Massachusetts provide free tuition for resident veterans at public institutions.

Source: National League of Cities - United States Conference of Mayors even a single veteran in most locations, particularly today with the cost of living continuing to increase.

Rising U. S. Incomes

Another means of measuring comparability is to view the benefits available to the veteran of World War II. Table 4 compares average individual monthly earnings for selected years to the benefits available to the veteran for subsistence purposes.

Table 4 reveals that the current level of benefits, when adjusted for the payment of tuition, fees, books and supplies, represents a significantly smaller proportion of average monthly earnings than did the subsistence allowance paid to the veteran of World War II. This is true whether the veteran is attending a 4-year or 2-year public college, whether he is single or has dependents. It is apparent that inflation and a rising standard of living have taken their toll on the Vietnam veteran's benefits and that his "real" ability to purchase postsecondary education has diminished with respect to his World War II counterpart.

Educational Benefits and Accessibility to Higher Education

There are few sectors of society where private and public institutions exist side by side, and although this diversity is beneficial in many ways, it also creates stresses and strains. The stresses and strains with respect to tuition costs between the public and private sectors have had major impact on the accessibility of higher education to veteran students.

In periods of relatively stable prices and only moderate growth in enrollments, tuition charges at public and private institutions have historically maintained a reasonably constant relationship to each other. As

Table 4: COMPARISON OF U. S. AVERAGE MONTHLY EARNINGS TO GI BILL BENEFITS FOR VETERANS IN SELECTED YEARS

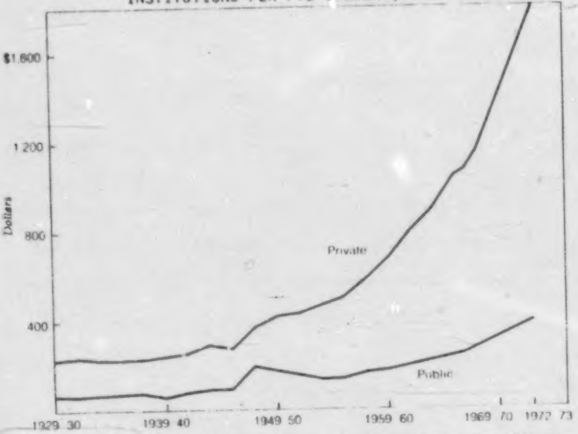
	1948	% of Average Monthly Earnings	May 1973	% of Average Monthly Earnings
Average monthly earnings:	$212	--	$617	--
Monthly Payments:				
No Dependents	75	35.4	220	35.7
After tuition at 4-year college[1]	--	--	149	24.1
After tuition at 2-year college[1]	--	--	171	27.7
One Dependents	105	49.5	261	42.3
After tuition at 4-year college[1]	--	--	190	30.9
After tuition at 2-year college[1]	--	--	212	34.4
Two Dependents	120	56.6	298	48.3
After tuition at 4-year college[1]	--	--	227	36.9
After tuition at 2-year college[1]	--	--	249	40.4

[1] A monthly charge of $70.55 for public 4-year institutions and $48.67 for 2-year public institutions, derived from average tuition, fees, books and supplies illustrated in Table 2, is deducted from the appropriate monthly payment.

Source: National League of Cities/United States Conference of Mayors.

Figure 2 indicates, immediately prior to the influx of returning World War II veterans, tuition charges at private colleges were about three times as high as they were in the average public institution. In the immediate post-war period, the gap narrowed considerably (basically caused by the fact that most public institutions were reimbursed for veterans' tuition at nonresident rates). Since 1953, the two average tuition levels have drawn farther and farther apart, with the most striking divergence occurring in the recent period of rapid expansion in enrollments and general cost inflation. This reflects the greater willingness of the states to absorb a substantial portion of the increase in cost for public higher education. It also reflects the changing "mix" in the public sector, as the number of 2-year colleges, typically maintaining low tuition charges, has increased much faster than the 4-year institutions. By 1972-73, average tuitions at private 4-year colleges were 5 times those at public institutions.

Figure 2: AVERAGE TUITION CHARGES IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS PER FTE STUDENT, 1929-30 to 1972-73



Source: Higher Education: Who Pays? Who Benefits? How Should Pay?

Perhaps even more important than the ratio of tuition levels, in the minds of most veterans, is the absolute dollar difference. In 1948 the gap between the two types of 4-year institutions was $174. By 1972-73, the gap had increased to some $1,480 per year.

This widening gap in tuition charges has clearly decreased the share of total degree-credit enrollment held by the private colleges and universities and has decreased veteran attendance to an even greater degree. As Table 5 indicates, veteran students were about equally divided between public and private institutions in 1948-49 but had increased their participation in public institutions vis-a-vis all college students by 1957-58, and this trend continues at the present time.

Table 5: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING UNDER THREE GI BILLS IN COMPARISON WITH NONVETERAN COLLEGE STUDENTS

	Veteran College Students		All College Students	
	Public	Private	Public	Private
1948-49 (World War II)	50	50	49	51
1957-58 (Korean conflict)	62	33	58	42
1972-73 (Vietnam era)	81	19	77	23

Source: Derived from VA, DVB, IB 24233-3 and Digest of Educational Statistics, National Center for Educational Statistics, 1971

The inflationary trend in tuition rates and the general cost of education have also had a marked effect with respect to accessibility and use of educational benefits by Vietnam Era veterans. As Table 6 indicates, there is a much heavier concentration of college-going veterans in public 2-year institutions than is found among the general college-going population.

Table 6: PERCENTAGE OF VETERANS ENROLLED IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN COMPARISON WITH NONVETERAN STUDENTS

1972-73	Veteran College Students	All College Students
4-year Public	40%	49
2-year Public	41%	28
Private	19%	23

Source: VA Office of Research and Statistics, DVB

If states are ranked on the basis of cumulative participation rates of Vietnam veterans in 2-year and 4-year colleges as illustrated in Table 7 below, it is found that those states with the most highly developed low-cost public educational systems have the greatest degree of participation by Vietnam veterans.

As discussed further on page 159, a strong relationship exists between state per capita expenditures on higher education and participation rates. There is a strong presumption that Veterans living in states that do not provide low-cost, easily accessible opportunities for higher education benefit less from the GI Bill because they cannot meet the costs of education in their states. Nor is it possible, in many cases, for the veteran to attend an out of state school due to the high tuition payments required of nonresidents.

Higher education is not uniformly accessible to the Vietnam conflict veteran as it was to the veteran of World War II. Tuition rates in 1948 were generally less than the direct maximum payment of $500 to institutions for tuition, fees, books and supplies. As a consequence, the World War II veteran had access to almost any institution in the United States, equal military service provided equal readjustment opportunities, except for variables such as major disability, "bad" discharge, etc.

Table 7: VIETNAM-ERA VETERAN GI BILL ENROLLMENT IN JUNIOR AND FOUR-YEAR COLLEGES BY STATES BASED ON PARTCIPATION RATES

		April 1973 Vietnam Era Veteran Population	Percent Ever in College under GI Bill
1.	California	756,000	37.0%
2.	North Dakota	15,000	36.6
3.	Arizona	64,000	34.2
4.	New Mexico	32,000	31.0
5.	Oregon	81,000	30.0
6.	Idaho	22,000	29.3
7.	Utah	40,000	29.0
8.	Washington	142,000	28.9
9.	Wyoming	11,000	28.9
10.	South Dakota	15,000	28.7
11.	Hawaii	29,000	28.5
12.	Colorado	885,000	27.7
13.	Oklahoma	91,000	26.3
14.	Kansas	69,000	26.2
15.	Florida	224,000	26.1
16.	Montana	24,000	26.1
17.	Texas	355,000	25.7
18.	Nebraska	44,000	25.2
19.	Michigan	266,000	23.0
20.	Wisconsin	130,000	22.1
21.	Alabama	93,000	21.9
22.	North Carolina	142,000	21.9
23.	Missouri	147,000	21.6
24.	Illinois	321,000	21.6
25.	New York	478,000	21.3
26.	Minnesota	133,000	21.2
27.	Mississippi	46,000	21.1
28.	Maryland	139,000	21.1
29.	Louisiana	97,000	20.9
30.	Tennessee	119,000	20.4
31.	Rhode Island	34,000	20.1
32.	Arkansas	53,000	19.9
33.	Massachusetts	188,000	19.8
34.	Connecticut	95,000	19.4
35.	Iowa	83,000	19.2
36.	Virginia	158,000	19.4
37.	Delaware	20,000	18.9
38.	West Virginia	46,000	18.5
39.	South Carolina	80,000	18.4
40.	Nevada	20,000	17.6
41.	Maine	30,000	17.5
42.	Georgia	152,000	17.3
43.	New Jersey	208,000	17.0
44.	New Hampshire	2[illegible],000	16.9
45.	Ohio	336,000	16.8
46.	Pennsylvania	357,000	16.4
47.	Kentucky	87,000	16.4
48.	Alaska	12,000	15.0
49.	Indiana	167,000	14.3
50.	Vermont	14,000	14.2

Source: Derived from VA, DVB, IB 24-73-3. Appendix Table 13.

The accessibility of higher education for the Vietnam conflict veteran is a function of not only his military service but also his particular state of residence. The effectiveness of the benefits is directly related to the availability of low-cost, readily accessible public institutions. The current veteran seeking to use his educational benefits finds that equal military service does not provide equal readjustment opportunities with respect to attendance at an institution of higher education.

Chapter 4

ADEQUACY OF CURRENT BENEFIT LEVELS

The previous chapter discussed the comparability of the benefits paid to veterans of World War II vis-a-vis those paid to veterans of the Vietnam Conflict. Part of the discussion centered on the fact that in considering comparability of educational benefits, it is not sufficient to determine what payments at the present time would be equivalent to those of earlier veterans; it is also necessary to measure changes in the supply side, i.e., changes in the cost of securing an education. There was extensive discussion of what type of education is available to the Vietnam veteran on the basis of current benefits as compared with his World War II counterpart.

This chapter will focus on the adequacy of benefits in relation to the costs of education in light of current economic conditions at institutions of higher education. The major part of the chapter will be devoted to the discussion of the financial characteristics of college attendance by veterans. It will attempt to provide data on what the total costs of education are vis-a-vis the level of educational benefits, how veterans are financing their education, and some preliminary indications of veteran participation in other federal student aid programs.

The Costs of Going to College

Little, if any, information is available on the actual costs of higher education that veteran students must pay. General data do not appear to exist on actual educational costs of veterans of World War II and the Korean Conflict. Certain data have recently become available regarding the financial characteristics of veterans currently attending institutions of higher education and are reported here for the first time.

The data has been provided by an analysis of students who had been determined to be self-supporting by institutional financial aid officers and filed the Students Financial Statement with the College Scholarship Service of the College Entrance Examination Board. Over 140,000 students throughout the United States filed such statements estimating their expenses and resources for the period July 1, 1972 to June 30, 1973. Some 100,000 of these Student Financial Statements were filed during the period March 1, 1972 through November 30, 1972. Of the total filing population, 21.3 percent indicated they were or would be receiving veterans benefits during the 1972-73 school year.

Veterans were asked to indicate the amounts that they spent or expected to spend during the 12-month year (July 1, 1972 to June 30, 1973) for tuition and fees, books, supplies, and course materials; room and board; transportation; and clothing, recreation, and incidental/other expenses. Because the amounts paid for tuition and fees are fixed by institutional policy and vary by type of institution attended, they have been eliminated from these comparisons in order to more accurately reflect those items of educationally related expense which are under the control of the veteran and can vary according to the choices he makes.

Books, Supplies, and Course Materials

There seems to be little variability in the amount paid by the veteran for books and other materials he needs to purchase. The mean estimated expenditure of all veterans in the sample was $146 for books and $70 for supplies and other course materials. Of the veteran population, 74 percent estimated they would spend less than $200 for books and some 90 percent indicated they would spend under $150 for supplies and other materials.

Table 8: VETERANS ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES FOR BOOKS, SUPPLIES, AND COURSE MATERIALS

	Books	Supplies and Course Materials
Less than $100	19.7	80.2
$101 to $200	54.5	12.6
201 to 400	24.0	4.4
401 to 600	1.3	1.0
601 and above	0.5	1.8

In the subsequent analysis, the mean estimated expenses of all veterans for books, supplies, and other course materials of $216 will be used.

Rent

The The average expense estimated by veterans for rent for the 12-month period was $1,493. Single veterans estimated an average expenditure of $973, married veterans without children an average of $1,723, and married veterans with children an average of $1,928.

Table 9: VETERANS ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES FOR RENT 1972-73

Expenditure	All Veterans	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
Less than $499	9.2%	18.6%	3.2%	4.3%
$ 500 to $ 749	7.3	15.7	2.4	2.2
750 to 999	9.4	17.6	4.9	3.8
1,000 to 1,249	13.4	20.7	10.3	7.3
1,250 to 1,499	10.4	8.7	12.6	9.4
1,500 to 1,749	14.1	9.2	18.0	14.9
1,750 to 1,999	11.3	4.7	16.3	14.2
2,000 to 2,499	15.5	3.9	22.3	23.2
2,500 and above	14.4	1.9	10.1	20.7

Food and Household Supplies

The average expense estimated by veterans for food and household supplies during the year was $1,126. Single veterans reported an estimated average expenditure of $652, married veterans without children an average of $1,187, and married veterans with children an average of $1,692.

Table 10: VETERANS ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES FOR FOOD AND HOUSEHOLD SUPPLIES 1972-73

Expenditure	All Veterans	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
Less than $499	15.1%	33.0%	5.0%	4.1%
$ 500 to $ 749	16.3	31.1	11.0	3.9
750 to 999	13.8	16.8	18.4	16.7
1,000 to 1,249	19.0	11.4	28.4	16.7
1,250 to 1,499	9.0	3.1	11.9	12.2
1,500 to 1,749	10.4	2.7	12.5	15.5
1,750 to 1,999	5.4	0.8	5.4	10.9
2,000 to 2,499	6.8	0.6	5.6	16.7
2,500 and above	4.2	0.4	1.9	13.9

Clothing, Laundry and Cleaning

Another major variable in the veteran's budget is the amount he spends on clothing, laundry and cleaning expenses. The average expenditure estimated by veterans for the year was $320. Single veterans estimated an average expenditure of $203, married veterans without children an average of $347, and married veterans with children an average of $444.

Table 11: VETERANS ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES FOR CLOTHING, LAUNDRY AND CLEANING 1972-73

Expenditure	All Veterans	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
Less than $199	34.2%	53.4%	25.6%	20.4%
$200 to $399	35.3	34.1	38.4	31.7
400 to 499	17.1	9.0	21.4	22.2
600 or more	13.4	3.5	14.6	25.7

Transportation

The average estimated expense by veterans for transportation expenses during the year was $455. Over 60 percent of the veterans estimated yearly expenses for transportation of $500 or less, while only 8.5 percent estimated they would spend more than $1,000.

Table 12: VETERANS ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES FOR TRANSPORTATION 1972-73

Less than $200	20.1%
$ 201 to $ 400	31.5
401 to 500	11.3
501 to 1,000	28.6
1,000 and above	8.5

Medical and Dental

The average estimated expense by veterans for medical and dental expenses during the year was $228. Single veterans estimated an average expenditure of $85, married veterans without children an average of $260, and married veterans with children an average of $327.

Table 13: VETERANS ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES FOR MEDICAL AND DENTAL EXPENSES 1972-73

Expenditure	All Veterans	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
Less than $200	57.4%	85.8%	50.0%	35.6%
$200 to $399	22.9	10.7	27.7	32.7
400 to 599	10.2	1.9	12.1	17.1
600 or more	9.5	1.6	10.2	14.6

Child Care

Among veterans with children, costs of child care were an important expense component. Veterans with children estimated average child care expenses for the year at $381. Over 50 percent of the married veterans with children estimated child care expenses of $250 or less. On the other hand, some 11.3 percent of such veterans estimated expenses in excess of $1,000.

Table 14: VETERANS WITH CHILDREN ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES FOR CHILD CARE 1972-73

Less than $200	47.4%
$ 200 to $399	11.2
400 to 599	10.1
600 to 999	20.0
1,000 or more	11.3

Other Expenses

Another major variable item in the veteran's budget is the amount that he spends on "miscellaneous" items nonetheless necessary for maintenance, survival, and attendance at college. The average estimated expenditure for the year for other expenses was $405. Single veterans reported an average estimated expenditure of $263, married veterans without children estimated an average of $506, and married veterans with children an average of $428.

Table 15: VETERANS ESTIMATED OTHER EXPENSES
1972-73

Expenditure	All Veterans	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
Less than $200	46.7%	58.4%	36.1%	41.6%
$200 to $399	15.7	16.4	16.9	16.5
400 to 499	12.2	10.7	13.2	14.0
600 or more	25.4	14.5	33.8	27.9

Total Estimated Budget for 1972-73

As previously indicated, the estimated budget was calculated excluding the amounts estimated for tuition and fees in an attempt to represent only those expenses which were under the control of the veteran and to prevent any bias that might be caused by the type of institution that the veteran was planning to attend. In order to present information more directly relevant to the type of veterans in education and to make it possible to relate educational expense to benefit levels, differential budgets were calculated for the subgroups of the population. Since the amounts estimated to be spent for books, supplies, and course materials and transportation appeared not be vary greatly from group to group, constant amounts of $216 for books and supplies, and $455 for transportation were included.

Table 16: VETERANS ESTIMATED 12-MONTH BUDGET, EXCLUDING TUITION AND FEES 1972-73

Average Expenditure	All Veterans	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
Books, supplies, course materials	$ 216	$ 216	$ 216	$ 216
Rent	1,493	973	1,723	1,928
Food and household supplies	1,126	652	1,187	1,692
Clothing, laundry, cleaning	320	203	347	444
Transportation	455	455	455	455
Medical and dental	228	85	260	327
Child Care	162	--	---	381
Other expenses	405	236	506	428
TOTAL	$4,405	$2,847	$4,694	$5,871

In reviewing these budgets, it must be reiterated that these are veterans' estimates of expenses that they would generally have during the 12-month period July 1, 1972 to June 30, 1973 and were estimates in support of applications for additional financial assistance from the institutions they were attending or were planning to attend.

Comparisons of these budgets with veterans benefit levels can be facilitated by recasting the budget for the academic year.

Table 17: VETERANS ESTIMATED 9-MONTH BUDGET, EXCLUDING TUITION AND FEES 1972-73

Budget	Total Veterans	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
Estimated Budget	$4,405	$2,847	$4,694	$5,871
Less: Books and Supplies	216	216	216	216
Estimated living expenses	$4,189	$2,631	$4,478	$5,655
Less: 1/4 estimated living expenses	1,047	658	1,120	1,414
Estimated living expenses 1972-73 academic year	$3,140	$1,973	$3,358	$4,241

Adequacy of Current Benefit Levels to Meet Educational Costs

In previous discussions, it was pointed out that veterans benefits were an integral and important part of the resources necessary to provide for the payment of living expenses and tuition, fees and books in order to attend a postsecondary institution. One aspect of the adequacy of current benefit levels to meet living costs in light of current economic conditions may be provided by comparing that portion of benefits available after payment of average tuition, fees, books and supplies at a 4-year public institution.

Table 18: AVAILABILITY OF VA ALLOWANCES TO MEET ESTIMATED LIVING EXPENSES
1972-73

	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
VA Allowance (9-month IHL)	$1,980	$2,349	$2,844[1]
1972-73 School Year			
4-Year Public			
Average tuition, fees, books and supplies	635	635	635
Benefits available for subsistence	$1,345	$1,714	$2,209
Estimated living expenses	1,973	3,358	4,241
Additional resources needed	$ 628	$1,644	$2,032

[1] Assumes veteran and three dependents

Source: Average tuition, fees, books, etc.: Table 2, Chapter 3.
Estimated living expenses: Table 17.

When VA allowances are adjusted for the average tuition, fees, books and supplies at a 4-year public college, it can be seen that the remaining benefits are insufficient to meet the veteran's estimates of living expenses for the academic year. For the single veteran, benefits available for subsistence purposes represent 68.2 percent of estimated living expenses; married veterans find their benefits available for subsistence representing slightly more than 50 percent of their estimated budget. It is obvious that the current allowances, either before or after adjustment for tuition, fees, books and supplies, are not sufficient of themselves to meet the estimated living expenses of the veteran student during the academic year.

To the extent that tuition, fees, books and supplies exceed the average for a 4-year public institution to an individual veteran, that portion of his allowances available for subsistence purposes are correspondingly reduced and his need for additional resources increases.

If the veteran attended a low-cost community college where the average tuition, fees, books and supplies were some $438 for the academic year, the remaining benefits available for subsistence purposes would be greater. In such a case, the single veteran would have remaining benefits approximating 73.1 percent of estimated living expenses; married veterans' remaining benefits would cover about 56 percent of their estimated living expenses.

It can be said that the current benefit levels, requiring as they do the payment of both tuition, fees, books, supplies, and living expenses, provide the basis for "unequal treatment of equals." Generally speaking, the average estimated living expenses will not vary significantly by type of institution attended (although there may be significant differences between geographical locations); however, the amount of benefits available to meet those expenses does vary depending upon the availability and type of institution attended. Ceterus paribus, veterans with equal characteristics should be equally treated. Such is not the case for veterans at the present time. The veteran residing in a state with a well-developed system of low-cost institutions of higher education has significantly more of his benefits available to help defray living expenses than would his equal counterpart living in a state without such system of low-cost institutions. In order to restore equity between veterans residing in different states with differing systems of public education, some form of variable payments to institution to ameliorate the differences in institutional costs would be required.

The Financing of Veterans' Educational Costs

In addition to estimates of educational expenses for the 1972-73 year, veterans filing Student's Financial Statements also estimated the resources that they would have available to meet those expenses from sources other than the institution to which they were applying for financial aid.

Most institutions expect that students will provide some portion of their own expenses from their own efforts, independent of what the institution can provide. This is generally referred to as "self-help," and includes contributions from personal savings and assets, part-time work, and for married veterans, the contribution that their spouse makes toward living expenses. Generally, the older the student is, the larger is the amount the college expects will be provided through self-help. This component is an important segment of the estimated resources for veteran students.

Employment

The mean total 1972-73 earnings after taxes estimated by all veteran students were $1,047. Single veterans estimated after tax earnings of $753, married veterans without children $875, and married veterans with children $1,232.

Table 19: VETERANS ESTIMATED TOTAL AFTER-TAX INCOME FROM EMPLOYMENT 1972-73

Income	All Veterans	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
Less than $500	50.7%	54.9%	52.2%	45.1%
$ 500 to $ 999	12.2	14.6	14.2	10.9
1,000 to 1,499	11.1	12.0	11.3	11.3
1,500 to 1,999	6.4	6.1	6.4	7.8
2,000 to 2,499	6.1	5.4	5.8	7.3
2,500 to 2,999	3.1	2.7	2.6	4.5
3,000 or more	10.4	5.2	7.5	13.1

Total Estimated Veterans Resources for 1972-73

The estimated total resources of the veteran population, his employment, employment contribution by the spouse, veterans benefits and savings, can be combined to indicate -- on the average -- the total resources the veteran estimates are available to meet his living expenses for the year and to finance his education.

Table 23: ESTIMATED YEARLY VETERANS RESOURCES TO MEET EDUCATIONAL AND LIVING COSTS
1972-73

Resources	All Veterans	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
Employment	$1,047	$ 753	$ 875	$1,232
Spouse's Employment	$1,170	$ --	$2,433	$1,489
Savings	$ 418	$ 310	$ 568	$ 431
Total Resources for year (excl. Vets benefits)	$2,635	$1,063	$3,876	$3,152
Less: 1/2 Estimated Living Expenses	1,047	658	1,120	1,414
Resources Available for academic year	$1,588	$ 405	$2,756	$1,738
Veterans Benefits	$1,827	$1,470	$1,858	$2,108
TOTAL RESOURCES for academic year	$3,415	$1,875	$4,614	$3,846

Comparisons can now be made with respect to the estimated resources available to the veteran for the academic year with the estimated living expenses that he will face while attending college.

Table 24: ESTIMATED RESOURCES AVAILABLE TO VETERANS FOR THE PAYMENT OF TUITION, FEES, BOOKS AND SUPPLIES 1972-73

	All Veterans	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
Estimated Resources available for academic year	$3,415	$1,875	$4,614	$3,846
Estimated living expenses for academic year	3,140	1,973	3,358	4,241
Available for payment of tuition, fees, books, and supplies	275	-98	1,256	-395
Avg. tuition, fees, books & supplies (4-yr. public inst.)	635	635	635	635
Additional resources needed	360	733	--	1,030

When estimated 9-month resources available to the veteran for the 1972-73 academic year are compared with his estimates of living expenses for a similar period; only the married veteran with a working spouse and no children has sufficient additional resources to meet the average expenses of tuition, fees, books and supplies at 4-year public institutions. Single veterans and married veterans with children require substantial financial assistance from other sources. If it is assumed that the veterans estimates of benefits to be received during 1972-73 were based on rates in effect prior to PL 92-540 and the estimated benefits are increased by approximately 26 percent -- single and married veterans with children still find their total resources insufficient to meet estimated living expenses and educational costs. Under these circumstances the single veteran would require an additional $355 and the married veteran with children would require $488.

Spouse's Employment

For married student veterans, the estimated after-tax earnings of the spouse were an important component of their estimated resources to meet educational costs. Married students without children estimated average after-tax earnings from the spouse of $2,433, while married students with children estimated the spouse would average only $1,489.

Table 20: SPOUSE'S ESTIMATED AFTER-TAX EARNINGS
1972-73

Income	Married No Children	Married With Children
Less than $500	32.1%	56.5%
$ 500 to $ 999	6.8	4.1
1,000 to 1,499	5.8	3.0
1,500 to 1,999	4.0	4.1
2,000 to 2,499	5.4	3.6
2,500 to 2,999	3.9	3.4
3,000 or more	42.0	25.3

Veterans Benefits

For all veteran students, estimates of benefit payments for 1972-73 were $1,827. Single veterans estimated they would receive an average of $1,470, married veterans without children expected to receive an average of $1,858 while those with children expected to receive an average of $2,108.[1]

Table 21: ESTIMATED VETERANS BENEFITS
1972-73

Benefits	All Veterans	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
Less than $500	6.9%	11.4%	3.8%	3.4%
$ 500 to $ 999	6.0	7.1	5.5	4.2
1,000 to 1,499	9.9	15.8	6.9	6.0
1,500 to 1,999	32.4	46.5	44.9	13.6
2,000 or more	44.8	19.2	39.1	72.8

It should be noted that changes in the benefit levels were made under PL 92-540 and were retroactive to the beginning of the 1972-73 academic year. The extent to which veterans estimated their 1972-73 benefits under the old rate schedules or those authorized under PL 92-540 is not known. Over 70 percent of the financial statements were filed between March and November, 1972, a period of wide-spread publicity regarding possible changes in veterans benefits, and may well reflect veterans estimates based upon the new or expected rate changes. This is not an unreasonable hypothesis in light of the fact that over 65 percent of the single veterans estimated benefits in excess of $1,500 and almost 20 percent estimated benefits exceeding $2,000.

Savings

The final major component of veterans resources was estimated amount of savings available to veterans to meet 1972-73 estimated costs. All veterans reported an average amount of savings of $418. Single veterans reported $310 in estimated savings, married veterans without children reported $568, and married veterans with children reported $431.

Table 22: ESTIMATED SAVINGS
1972-73

Amount	All Veterans	Single	Married No Children	Married With Children
Less than $500	79.0%	84.3%	70.1%	76.5%
$ 500 to $999	9.3	7.6	12.2	10.5
$1,000 or more	11.7	9.1	17.7	13.0

Participation in Other Federal Student Aid Programs

Additional sources of student financial aid to the veteran student could include other federally-funded programs of student assistance. While none of the other programs specify priority preference for veterans, there is nothing to deny them eligibility if they meet the standards and regulations of those programs. The major federally-funded aid programs in which the veteran could have participated during the 1972-73 academic year were:

- Educational Opportunity Grants (any undergraduate)
- Health Professions Grants (students in medicine, nursing, and other health-related curricula)
- Law Enforcement Grants (students in police science and other law enforcement-related curricula)
- National Defense Student Loans (any student)
- Health Professions Loans
- Law Enforcement Loans
- Federally Insured Student Loans (any student, granted through state agencies or commerical lending institutions)
- College Work-Study Employment

While data are not available on veteran participation in other federal programs during the 1972-73 academic year for the Student's Financial Statements filed with the College Scholarship Service, some inferences can be drawn from the analysis of veterans attending California colleges and universities during the 1971-72 academic year, contained in Appendix B.

Participation by veterans in other federally-funded student aid programs has been relative small, as indicated by the veteran population attending California institutions.

Table 25: VETERAN PARTICIPATION IN OTHER FEDERALLY-FUNDED
STUDENT AID PROGRAMS
CALIFORNIA VETERANS
1971-72 ACADEMIC YEAR

Program	Percentage of Veterans Participating
Educational Opportunity Grants	1.5%
Health Professions Grants	2.4
Law Enforcement Grants	2.1
National Direct Student Loans	5.6
Health Professions Loans	1.2
Law Enforcement Loans	1.9
Guaranteed Student Loans	10.1
College Work-Study Employment	6.4

The small participation of veterans in these other federally-funded student aid programs may be attributable to institutional financial aid officers giving priority in the allocation of other student aid resources to those students with the greatest financial need. Since the veteran has resources available to him through the GI Bill, the colleges may well believe that he could otherwise attend and therefore reserve the other student aid funds that they have available to students who do not have any significant amount of resources of their own.

The end result is that the average veteran, when faced with insufficient resources to meet his estimated expenses for living plus institutional costs, must either arrange for additional financial resources outside the normal student aid funding sources or seek out a lower-cost institution when such is available to him.

Chapter 5

CHANGING CHARACTERISTICS OF THE VETERAN

Differences in the nature and duration of the three conflict periods have brought about corresponding changes in the personal characteristics of those who served. An understanding of these differences is central to an understanding of the veterans use of educational benefits. Following is an examination of some of these changes based on the limited available data.

Educational Achievement

The educational level of veterans at time of discharge has steadily increased from the World War II period to the present (see Table 26). This increase in educational levels has mirrored the increase in educational levels in the general male population (see Figure 3).

Veterans have always had a higher educational level than the general population. This is due to the selectivity of the Armed Forces' recruitment and induction policies which reject most individuals with less than a high school education. The high percentage of veterans of the Vietnam Era with four or more years of college is due in part to draft deferments for college students which postponed their entry into the Armed Forces until after graduation.

Figure 4 points out the dramatic decrease in the percentage of veterans with less than a high school education at time of discharge. Today only one in five veterans lacks a high school education as compared to over half of World War II veterans. Thus, today's veteran has a much higher level of education at time of discharge than the veterans of previous periods. This undoubtedly has an effect on veterans participation in education and training programs, which we shall examine later.

Table 26: EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF COMPARABLE AGE-GROUPS OF WORLD WAR II, KOREAN CONFLICT AND VIETNAM ERA VETERANS AT SEPARATION FROM THE ARMED FORCES

(Includes Vietnam Era veterans separated through December 31, 1972)

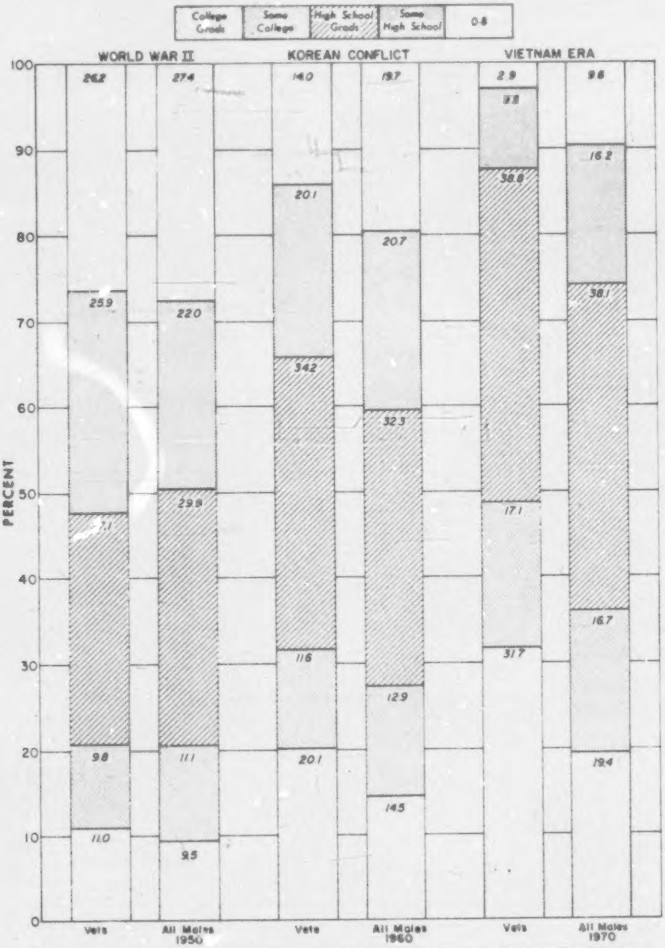
Period of service and age	Yrs of school completed at separation-% of Total					Median (Yrs.)
	8 yrs. or less	High School		College		
		1-3 years	4 years	1-3 years	4 yrs. or more	
All Ages						
World War II a/	28.3	26.3	26.3	9.6	9.5	11.5
Korean Conflict	12.6	24.9	43.5	11.1	7.9	12.3
Vietnam Era	3.5	16.7	57.9	13.5	8.4	12.5
Under 20						
World War II a/	30.5	36.1	29.4	4.0	-	10.6
Korean Conflict	28.1	53.3	17.6	1.0	-	10.2
Vietnam Era	8.5	47.4	42.3	1.6	0.2	11.6
20-24 Years						
World War II a/	21.2	28.5	32.0	9.8	8.5	12.0
Korean Conflict	11.5	27.5	47.1	10.0	3.9	12.2
Vietnam Era	3.0	16.4	63.3	13.9	3.4	12.5
25-29 Years						
World War II a/	26.2	25.9	27.1	9.8	11.0	11.7
Korean Conflict	14.0	20.1	34.2	11.6	20.1	12.5
Vietnam Era	2.9	9.5	38.8	17.1	31.7	13.0
30-34 Years						
World War II a/	32.0	23.8	24.0	9.3	10.9	11.3
Korean Conflict	15.4	25.1	39.4	11.5	8.6	12.2
Vietnam Era	2.5	9.7	46.5	10.2	31.1	12.8
35 Years or Older						
World War II a/	44.8	22.5	15.3	9.7	7.7	9.7
Korean Conflict	13.4	17.1	43.8	15.4	10.3	12.4
Vietnam Era	4.1	8.0	61.6	14.2	12.1	12.6

a/ Data are based on educational level at separation of World War II enlisted men, adjusted to reflect estimated educational attainment of officers.

Source: Data on Vietnam Era Veterans. Reports and Statistics Service, Veterans Administration 1972, p. 13.

FIGURE 3

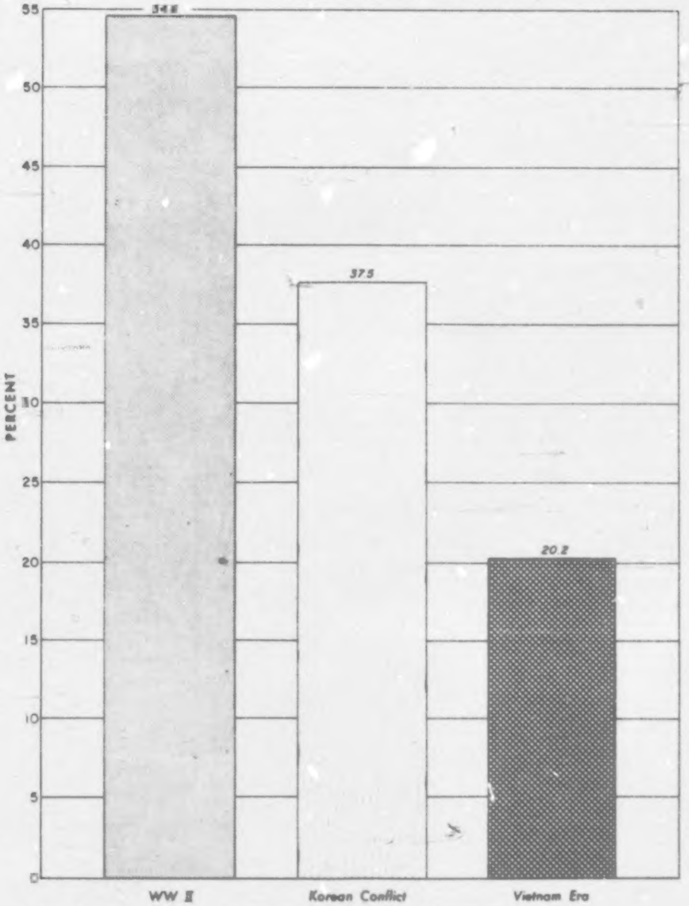
EDUCATIONAL LEVELS OF VETERANS AT TIME OF DISCHARGE AND CIVILIAN MALES (AGES 25-29)



SOURCE: Bureau of Census: U.S. Summary, 1950, 1960, 1970. Data on Vietnam Era Veterans
Veterans Administration

FIGURE 4

VETERANS OF ALL AGES
WITH LESS THAN A HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION



SOURCE: Data on Vietnam Era Veterans, 1972 Veterans Administration.

NOTE: At time of discharge

It is interesting to note that a recent Veterans Administration study found that nearly 1/3 of those who entered the service prior to completion of high school dropped out of school to enter the Armed Forces.[1]

Age

The varying manpower needs and induction policies for the three periods of rapid expansion of our Armed Forces resulted in significant differences in the age distribution of the three groups of veterans (see Figure 5). At the end of WW II 61.2 percent of the veterans were under 30 years of age. The percentage of veterans under 30 rose to 83.4 percent for Korean Conflict veterans and dropped slightly to 78.3 percent for Vietnam Era veterans.

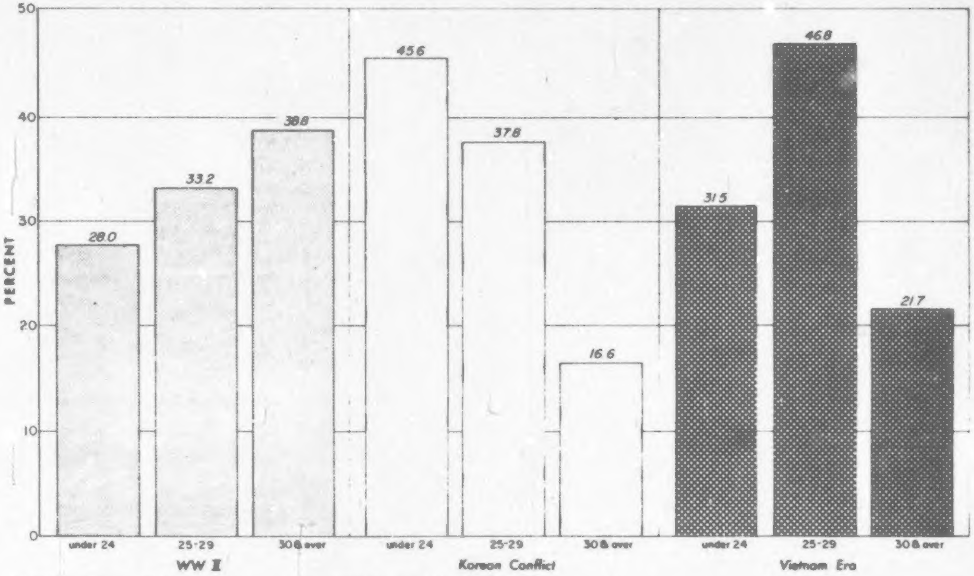
The younger age of the Korean Conflict and Vietnam Era veteran is an important factor to be considered in making comparisons of education and training programs for these veterans. Most individuals acquire their post-secondary education and formal career education during the decade beginning with their 18th year. The serviceman of the Korean and Vietnam Eras was more likely to enter and leave the service before his 30th birthday than the serviceman of World War II. Thus, more veterans of the latter two periods were in the service when most people acquire their education. It is more likely that their educational plans were disrupted, and that they had not completed their educational program and settled on a career objective.

Age of Disadvantaged Veterans

Examination of the age distribution of disadvantaged veterans of the Vietnam Era indicates that this group is significantly younger than the general Vietnam Era veteran population.[2] Figure 6 illustrates that 87.7 percent of disadvantaged veterans sampled were 25 or under. Less than 1 percent were 29 or over. This indicates that the education programs of socially

FIGURE 5

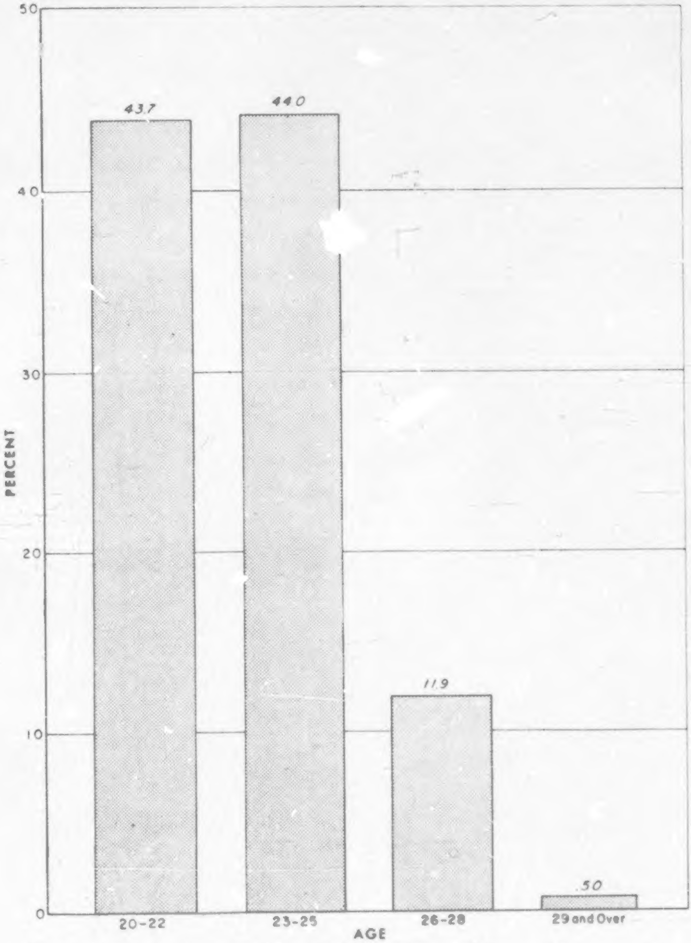
AGE DISTRIBUTION OF VETERANS OF THE THREE ERAS



SOURCE: Data on Vietnam Era Veterans, Dec 1972, Veterans Administration.

FIGURE 6

AGE OF DISADVANTAGED VIETNAM VETERANS



SOURCE: A Survey of Socially and Economically Disadvantaged Vietnam-Era Veterans Bureau of the Budget November, 1967.

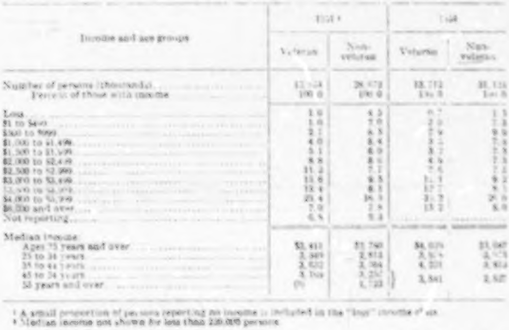
and economically disadvantaged Vietnam Era veterans are more likely to be interrupted than those of the general veteran population. There are no comparable data for the World War II and Korean veterans.

Income

The Bradley Commission said in 1956: "The income characteristic is of major importance in that it embraces a number of significant factors. Aside from an indication of financial competence, it reflects the general occupational level of the veteran, the steadiness of his employment."[3]

The table below indicates that a substantial number of veterans earned higher incomes than those earned by nonveterans in 1951 and 1954. Likewise, from the median income statistics in Table 27 it appears that the 25-34 age group, which includes about two-thirds of the World War II veterans earned about $900 more in 1954 than nonveterans of similar age. It is clear that the veteran, after readjustment, earned a consistently higher income than the nonveteran of comparable age.

Table 27: INCOME -- COMPARISON OF TOTAL MONEY INCOME FOR MALE VETERANS AND NONVETERANS OF WORLD WAR II, 25 YEARS OLD AND OVER AND MEDIAN INCOME BY AGE GROUPS: 1951 AND 1954



Income and age groups	1951¹		1954	
	Veteran	Non-veteran	Veteran	Non-veteran
Number of persons (thousands)	12,[illegible]	28,972	13,772	31,116
Percent of those with income	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Loss	1.6	4.5	0.7	1.5
$1 to $499	1.6	7.0	2.0	7.3
$500 to $999	2.1	6.5	2.9	9.6
$1,000 to $1,499	4.0	8.4	3.[illegible]	7.8
$1,500 to $1,999	5.1	6.0	3.7	7.3
$2,000 to $2,499	8.8	8.6	4.6	7.3
$2,500 to $2,999	11.2	7.1	7.6	7.2
$3,000 to $3,499	15.6	9.5	11.1	9.2
$3,500 to $3,999	12.4	8.1	12.7	8.1
$4,000 to $4,999	23.4	16.3	31.2	26.6
$5,000 and over	7.0	2.9	13.2	8.0
Not reporting	6.5	5.3		
Median income:				
Ages 25 years and over	$3,411	$2,740	$4,[illegible]	$3,047
25 to 34 years	3,349	2,812	3,9[illegible]	3,[illegible]
35 to 44 years	3,632	3,384	4,201	3,414
45 to 54 years	3,[illegible]	3,25[illegible]	3,841	2,82[illegible]
55 years and over	(²)	1,723		

¹ A small proportion of persons reporting no income is included in the "loss" income class.
² Median income not shown for less than 200,000 persons.

Source: Bradley Commission, Staff Report IV, Table 1, 1956

Table 28 illustrates a steady rise, from 1948 to 1954, in the ratio of veteran to nonveteran income for 25-34 and 35-44 age groups. In 1950, a large proportion of veterans received a dividend on their national service life insurance policy which accounts for approximately $50 of the increase in veterans incomes.

Table 28: INCOMES OF VETERANS AND NONVETERANS -- MEDIAN TOTAL MONEY INCOMES OF MALE VETERANS AND NONVETERANS OF WORLD WAR II, 25 TO 44 YEARS OLD, 1947-54, ANNUAL INCOME

[illegible]	[illegible]		[illegible]		[illegible]	
	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

Source: Bradley Commission, Staff Report IV, Table 1(a), 1956

The median income of all male veterans in 1949 was $2,828 as compared to $2,662 for nonveterans. In 1950, the median income for all veterans rose to $3,058 as compared with $2,676 for nonveterans. The higher income of veterans is due partly to the fact that many veterans had been employed only part-time while going to school or seeking suitable employment. For many veterans, 1948 was the first year of full-time civilian employment.

In 1959, the median income for all veterans at $5,109 was substantially higher than nonveteran income at $3,215. This large difference in the two incomes is in part explained by the concentration of the veteran population in the age levels at which income is highest and "the relatively small proportion of non-whites in the veteran population."[4] The median earnings of nonwhite veterans in 1959 was only $3,372, but was still considerably greater than that of all non-white males, $2,566, by a ratio of 1.31. The ratio of median income of all veterans to the median income of non-white veterans was 1.51. The median age nationally of veterans at this time was 38.2 years. Veterans were generally concentrated at this time in the 25-44 age range, with 64.6 percent of veterans fell into this category as compared to 21.9 percent of nonveterans. The median age for Korean veterans at this time was only 28.4 years, well before their peak earning potential had been reached. There were a total of 23 million veterans in the United States at this time.

Vietnam created about 4.5 million veterans during the decade (1960-1970) while men who served in the Armed Forces between the Korean and Vietnam Conflicts increased the number of veterans by about 1.4 million. In 1969, 56 percent of all veterans fell within the 35-54 age range as compared with 33 percent of the male population age 16 and over. The median income of all veterans, $8,385, was higher than that of the total male population 18 years and over, $6,783. Here again, these substantial differences in income are not due exclusively to veteran status but reflect:

(1) The heavy concentration of veterans in the most productive age ranges.

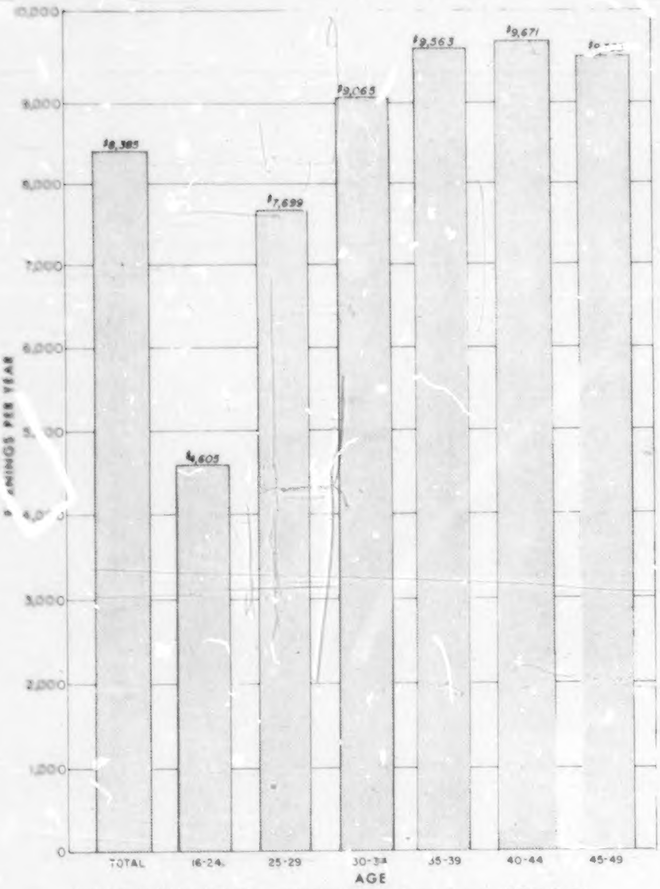
(2) The slightly higher incidence of whites and urban residents in the veteran population.

(3) The selective nature of the Armed Forces which rejected persons with major physical disabilities, mental impairment, and other impediments to higher earnings. (See Figures 7 and 8)

The following table shows the increasing margins between the incomes of veterans and those of nonveterans for selected post-conflict years:

FIGURE 7

MEDIAN INCOME OF VETERANS BY AGE



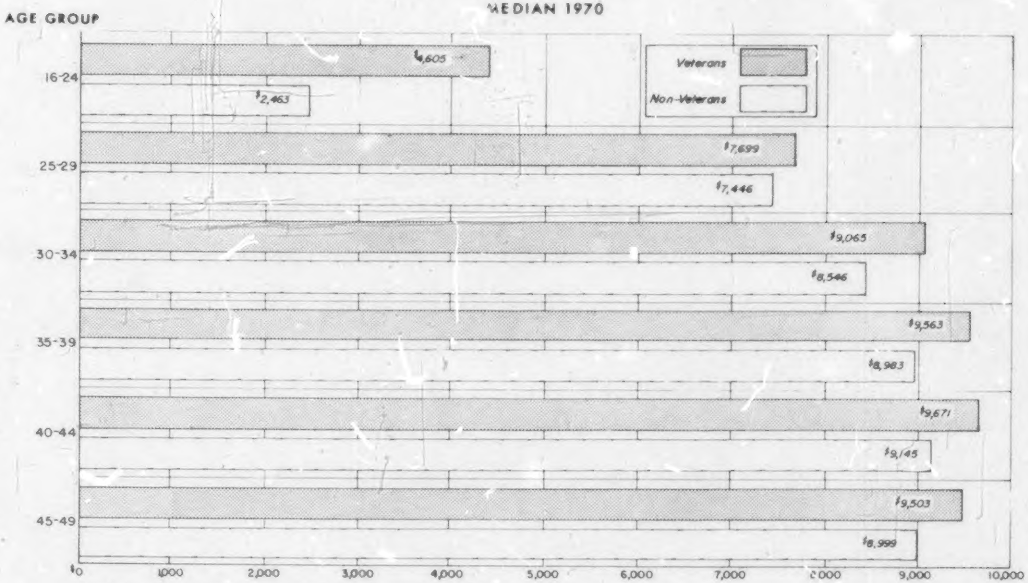
SOURCE: 1970 Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary Census of Population.

NOTE: Based on 1969 income

FIGURE 8

VETERAN AND NONVETERAN INCOME BY AGE GROUP

MEDIAN 1970



SOURCE: 1970 Detailed Characteristics / Census of Population

NOTE: Based on 1969 income

Table 29: VETERAN'S INCOME AS PERCENT OF NONVETERANS' INCOME

Year	Ratio
1950	111.4
1954	121.7
1960	158.9
1964	122.2
1970	123.6

Source: Compiled from Bradley Commission, Staff Report IV, 1956, and Detailed Characteristics, United States Census, 1950, 1960, 1970.

Educationally Disadvantaged

Income among the educationally disadvantaged (those with no more than 11 years of schooling) are substantially lower than those of the general veteran population. Urban blacks, for instance, who have no high school diploma, but who are usually employed, in 1970 earned an average of $125 weekly as compared with $135 for the white educationally disadvantaged living in an urban area. Black educationally-disadvantaged veterans who were usually unemployed earned only $105 weekly when they worked, compared to $116 weekly for whites. Incomes for the non-urban blacks in the same category are $107 if they are typically employed and only $79 if they are frequently unemployed (see Table 30).

Table 30: MEAN WEEKLY INCOME OF DISADVANTAGED VETERANS, 1969

	Urban		Non-Urban	
	Employed	Unemployed	Employed	Unemployed
White	$135	$116	$119	$112
Black	125	108	107	79

Source: Bureau of the Budget, A Survey of Socially and Economically Disadvantaged Vietnam Era Veterans, (text table pg. 18), December, 1969.

At $6,500 yearly for educationally disadvantaged blacks who work steadily and $7,020 for whites in the same category, these incomes are substantially below the median yearly income of all veterans, $8,385. Moreover, white educationally disadvantaged veterans earn somewhat more than males in the general population, $7,020 and $6,783 respectively.

Family Income

On the basis of data obtained from the 1970 census, families in which the veteran was head had a median income of $11,526; for all families in the United States with a male head, the figure was $10,131. In other terms, income was approximately $961 per month for families headed by veterans, and $844 for families headed by nonveterans. This compares with $864 for the family headed by a white educationally disadvantaged veteran living in an urban area, and $776 for the black family under the same circumstances. For those who, because of their education and training, have difficulty finding or maintaining employment, the monthly income figure drops to $458 for whites in urban areas, and $598 for blacks in cities.

In non-urban areas, the white family of the educationally disadvantaged veteran with steady employment had an income of $660 as compared with $619 for blacks. The black "unemployed" family under these same circumstances has an income of $432, $182 below that of the white family under the same conditions. (See Table 31).

Table 31: MEAN MONTHLY FAMILY INCOME, 1969

	Urban		Non-Urban	
	Employed	Unemployed	Employed	Unemployed
White	$864	$458	$660	$614
Black	776	598	619	432

Source: Bureau of the Budget, A Survey of Socially and Economically Disadvantaged Vietnam Era Veterans, 1969 (text table pg. 19)

In terms of the relative increase in weekly earnings with increasing education, a high school education or its equivalent makes an extraordinary difference in the earning potential for the black educationally disadvantaged veteran as compared with his white counterpart. Among Blacks, there is a +10 percent difference between earnings of high school graduates and non-high school graduates as compared with a +4 percent factor for white veterans. The black veteran who has completed some college experiences a +5 percent difference in earnings over the high school graduate; in the case of white veterans this percentage increase is 4. Consequently, the differences between earnings based on some college education, compared to the non-high school graduate, are 15 percent for the black veteran, and 8 percent for whites. This substantial margin, especially in the difference between high school graduates and non-high school graduates makes the advantages of continuing education for the educationally disadvantaged veteran very clear (see Table 32).

Table 22: RELATIVE INCREASE IN WEEKLY EARNINGS WITH INCREASING EDUCATION

	Percent Difference Between Earnings of H.S. Grad. and Non-H.S. Graduates	Percent Difference Between Earnings of Some College and H.S. Graduate	Percent Difference Between Earnings of Some College and Non-H.S. Graduate
Among Black Veterans	+10	+5	+15
Among White Veterans	+4	+4	+8

Source: National Urban League, Black GIs and Veterans, Veterans Briefing Book, 1969, Table II-2.

Conclusions

The analysis of veterans' incomes lends itself to several conclusions:

(1) Veterans incomes are typically higher than nonveterans income throughout the three post-conflict periods. It is important to keep in mind that in contrast to nonveterans in general, veterans at the time of survey have often been concentrated in the more productive earning ages. Further, the margin between veterans and nonveterans income, in favor of veterans, if often minimal or nonexistent in years immediately following the given conflict.

(2) Incomes are substantially lower for veterans who are educationally disadvantaged and/or black. Although in-service and post-service remedial programs appear to be having positive effects on the earning potential of blacks and educationally disadvantaged, the incomes of these groups are still, for the most part, below the median income of veterans.

(3) Veterans who reside in urban areas of 100,000 or more in population, earn somewhat higher incomes than their non-urban counterparts.

(4) Those who are frequently unemployed or who have difficulty finding and maintaining employment earn less than veterans with a more stable employment history. Unemployment data indicates that those who have difficulty in securing steady employment are often black or disadvantaged veterans.

(5) Veterans family incomes follow, generally, the same trends indicated by analysis of veterans' personal income.

Social and Psychological Characteristics

Generalizations and broad comparisons are very hazardous with respect to social and psychological characteristics of the three veteran populations being discussed. Although a number of studies of Vietnam veterans have been made, there simply aren't enough statistics, or longitudinal studies, or adequate data available on the psychological characteristics of present or earlier veterans. Nevertheless, the evidence suggests that for many reasons, including both changing generational attitudes and the specific nature of the war in Vietnam, the veteran of Vietnam is indeed psychologically very different from earlier veterans.

The returning GIs of World War II were known for their strong personal motivation and sense of direction, and for their renewed faith in the American social and governmental system. The same cannot be said of veterans of Vietnam. A psychological study of World War II veterans attending college reported that:

> ... the veterans returning to our colleges today are not merely older students of the traditional prototype. They show differences...in personal values, clarity and definition of goals, strength of motivation, emotional needs, sense of responsibility and desire for independence.[5]

The scholarly and popular journals of the time report that World War II veterans "contributed steadying influences to college life", that they were academic as well as political and athletic leaders on campus, and that their spirit was one of "resolute idealism." When Columbia University polled servicemen planning to return to school at Columbia, responses indicated great interest in participation in extracurricular activities as well as in pursuing definite career objectives. The Columbia Associate Dean wrote:

"...returned servicemen have learned how to work together toward a common objective." One man wrote to the Dean:

> "Now I am a lot less confused, Military service is a great tempering agent...our travels have taught us much...people, action, thoughts, scenery, idealism and conflict have created a ponderous juggernaught...it has reformed, reshaped, in substance as well as in spirit, our peculiar scholastic idealism. It [military service] has made us realistic idealists..."[6]

The literature on World War II veterans' social and psychological readjustment problems is concerned with marital conflicts and family difficulties, with the problem of "slowing down to civilian life", and with reoccurances of "battle fatigue" symptoms.

A 1946 psychological study of veterans readjustment problems found that instead of shaking or altering fundamental values (as some had predicted) the war experience had actually reinforced a number of traditional values. In terms of family rapport, a plurality of veterans polled (48 percent) reported "more understanding" than before the war. Eighty percent reported more independence. And more ex-GIs reported that their religious faith had been increased than reported it had decreased.[7]

In 1947, the New Republic magazine held a short story competiton for aspiring young ex-GI writers. The editors' analysis of the over 2,000 entries concluded that:

> "If these stories are any sort of clue, the general spirit of the authors is one of optimism...Their complaint against war is against its boredom and the stupidity of the brass, not (its) negation of fundamental values..."[8]

Veterans of the Korean War were products of the same optimistic, unquestioning generation, yet Korea was, like Vietnam, an undeclared, "unwinnable" conflict in which the intense belief in the rightness of the cause which motivated World War II GIs gave way to a new ambiguity of purpose. Alden V. Halloran points out that Korea was the first war in which American prisoners of war lacked primary group solidarity and rarely tried to escape confinement. Captured Americans in World War II reported continuation in captivity of the "buddy system" and the high group morale and they succeeded in many escape attempts. In Korea, Americans who were captured in large groups reported little group spirit. Among the 7,000 prisoners, very few attempted escape. One camp of 600 American prisoners is reported to have been guarded by six Chinese.[9]

Many Korean veterans, like veterans of Vietnam, felt that people at home neither supported nor appreciated their sacrifice. Returning Korean War veterans may have had doubts and bitterness about their service, but the economic prosperity of the time and the political conformity of the "Cold War" served to repress the doubts and to reassure and resocialize the veterans.

The reactions of Vietnam veterans returning to school and society offer an even more vivid contrast with the optimism and moral certitude of the World War I veterans. Marc J. Musser, Chief Medical Director of the Veterans Administration, reports that one local VA study found:

> "Three out of five young veterans interviewed in connection with the USVAC project were embittered, unsettled, generally distrustful and showed inability to find meaning in life."[10]

A VA study of recently separated Vietnam veterans reports 51.6 percent of veterans polled to have "readjustment problems", a significant minority of whom report "not being able to find themselves".[11] The recent Lou Harris study commissioned by the VA reports that a type of alienation characterized by feeling "left out" and misunderstood, was identified with by half of the veterans polled. This was found to be particularly true among non-whites and veterans with less than a high school education.

Many local studies by VA psychologists tend to support the contention that today's veteran is psychologically different from earlier veterans. An early study at the Minneapolis VA Hospital found that in comparing 81 World War II veterans, 235 Korean War veterans, and 453 Vietnam Era veterans, the Vietnam veterans showed "greater suicidal and assaultive tendencies" and "more dissatisfaction with home and family", as well as excessive use of alcohol and drugs.[12] While finding a considerable degree of "commonality" among age groups, Mary S. Harper of the Montrose, NY VA Hospital found that Vietnam veterans have a "low tolerance for increased frustration and stress before they have to seek help". She confirms the earlier finding that the rate of suicide attempts is considerably higher among Vietnam veteran psychiatric patients (34 percent) than among veterans of earlier wars.[13]

One VA psychiatrist found so much difference between Vietnam veterans and older veterans that he offered a proposal for the separation of recent veterans from the older veterans. He found that conflicts between the generations were such that "patients and staff receive abrassive experience which can disrupt and even prevent optimal treatment." He found Vietnam veterans to be critical and self-assertive, to be conflicted or negative about military service, to reject authority and to seek equality and group activity, and to demand and need freedom. Older veterans, on the other hand, were described as passive, proud of their military service, desiring solitude, and needing rules, structure and authority.[14]

Charles A. Stenger, Chairman of the Vietnam Era Veterans Committee in the VA, has for many months been leading a campaign to make Veterans Administration personnel aware of and sympathetic to the Vietnam veteran's special psychology and needs. (VA Seminars on the Vietnam Era Veteran were held in five cities in 1971.) Stenger points to five distinctive characteristics of the young veteran today:

(1) An assertive response to authority -- a need to know about and participate in decisions affecting him.

(2) An expectation that authority will be indifferent and unresponsive. (A readiness to be "turned off" by authority.)

(3) A general sense of uncertainty and pessimism toward the future. (Stenger sees this as attached to the "now phenomenon", use of drugs, and lack of direction in life.)

(4) An intense, positive identification with his own age group (a seeking of mutual support)

(5) A tendency to "let out" emotions. Impatience and impulsiveness. (Stenger sees the greater incident of suicides and suicide attempts as one manifestation of this!)

Stenger sees the experiences of combat in Vietnam and the disapproval and hostility at home as serving to magnify "the doubts and fears about the worth of society, capabilities of those in authority and the meaning of life" that the veteran shares with many others of his generation.[15] Stenger has been further quoted as saying that Vietnam veterans are "no different from other veterans of other wars or from other young people their age. Some are alienated, but what 20-24 year old isn't?...Some don't like war, what's new about that?"[16]

In trying to account for the observable attitude and personality differences of Vietnam veterans, other psychiatric researchers have stressed the effects of combat, and the special nature of combat in Vietnam, to a greater extent than Stenger and other VA psychologists. Other researchers have also seemed to show more concern for possible deep-seated psychological damage caused by Vietnam combat experience.

The "shell shock" of World War I and the "combat fatigue" of World War II had their counterparts in Vietnam, but as Albert Glass has pointed out, such behavior once seen as "sick" or unmanly" is now accepted and handled routinely without evacuation. The special psychological problems associated with Vietnam combat defy traditional classification.[17]

The personal adjustment of veterans, many believe, is predicated upon the ability of the veteran to justify to himself the value of his wartime activity. World War II veterans had little difficulty convincing themselves of the rightness of "their war." The subconscious self-images of many Vietnam veterans, however, may have been badly tarnished by an inability to make similar inner justifications. Of the over two hundred veterans of Vietnam interviewed by Murray Polner, not one was free from doubts about American involvement in Vietnam.[18]

Robert Jay Lifton, a Yale psychiatrist, is convinced that "the survivors" of any combat situation must consciously or unconsciously cope with intense anxiety and guilt. The specific nature of the Vietnam combat situation produces anxiety and complicated the tasks of adjustment, according to Lifton. The sporadic and unconventional nature of the fighting, the killing of civilians -- the constant confusion as to the identify of the enemy -- contribute to what Lifton calls "psychic numbing."[19]

One effect of the "rotation system" used for the first time in Vietnam is that, as Peter G. Bourne says:

> "The war becomes a highly individualized and encapsulated event for each man. His war begins the day he arrives and ends the day he leaves. He feels no continuity with those who precede or follow him; he even feels apart from those who are with him but rotating on a different schedule."[20]

Whereas the "buddy system" of high primary group identity and dependence was characteristic of World War II and Korea, the distinguishing combat ethos in Vietnam was "look out for number one." Personal physical and emotional survival became more important than the outcome of any battle.

Chaim Shatan, a psychoanalyst at N.Y.U. who has been studying returning veterans for several yeras, believes that emotional survival in Vietnam necessitates the creation of "a dead place" in the emotional capabilities of combat veterans which creates continuing doubts about their abilities to emotionally respond to others.[21] Other researchers describe the same phenomena -- the emotional "indifference," the "apathy," the "chronically depressed state," and the lack of self-esteem rooted in the moral ambiguity of what they did in Vietnam. If Professor Lifton is right, we can expect "various kinds of psychological disturbances to appear in Vietnam veterans, ranging from mild withdrawal to periodic depression, to severe psychosomatic disorder to disabling psychosis.[22]

In any event, there is a body of research which indicates that a Vietnam combat veteran's observed psychological characteristics and reactions to civilian life (including "withdrawal," distrust of the "system," pessimism about the future, and negative self concept) may indeed be based on something deeper and more complicated than the social customs of the "Now Generation."

Two implications of the psychological distinctiveness of the Vietnam veteran might be drawn from this discussion. One, a great deal of understanding, trust-building, and confidence-building will be necessary for some of the most "alienated" Vietnam veterans to be able to succeed in our post-secondary education system today. A different kind of "outreach" effort may be called for in light of the different psychological characteristics of many Vietnam veterans. And two, the lower GI Bill educational participation rates in recent years are partly explained by the great differences in motivation, trust in the system, personal self-confidence, etc., of Vietnam veterans as compared with World War II veterans.

There are indications, moreover, that the conventional college education may not be as sought after and highly valued by Vietnam veterans and by the general public today as it was in the years after World War II.

A recent statewide California opinion poll revealed that 79 percent of those polled agreed with the statement -- "There are lots of ways for young people to prepare themselves for adulthood that are as good or better than going to college." Seventy-two percent agreed that -- "Colleges are admitting too many students who really do not belong there." Of those feeling that college education is essential for a young person to "get somewhere", the greatest support came from the older age group.[23]

The Vietnam Veteran in Education

In the spring of 1972, some 25 percent of students enrolled in postsecondary education in the State of California participated in a survey conducted by the College Entrance Examination Board for the California State Scholarship and Loan Commission that elicited information about their characteristics and the ways in which they financed their education. Of the total group, over 25,000 were veterans. A summary of part of the data is provided here to provide a profile of the Vietnam Era veteran in education in California. While the availability of low-cost community colleges in California, and other characteristics which are unique to California prevent a blanket generalization from the California data to the nation at large, the data on California veterans provide many valuable insights into the characteristics of veterans in postsecondary education in 1972. A detailed analysis of the California data along with a more complete statement of its comparability with the national veteran population appears in Appendix B.

Age

The veterans population is significantly older than the general population of students in education in California and older than the total population in education in the United States. The mean age of all students in California responding to the survey was 24.1 years; the veterans mean age was 28.8 years. The following chart compares the population 34 yeras of age and under with comparable statistics for the total population of students in postsecondary education in the United States and in the total California survey population:

Table 33: COLLEGE STUDENTS BY AGE, 34 YEARS AND UNDER SELECTED GROUPS

Age	U.S. Undergraduate College Enrollment October, 1971	California SRS Total Spring, 1972	Veterans Group Spring, 1972
19 and Under	43.6%	21.5%	3.8%
20 - 21	28.1	29.2	6.3
22 - 24	14.8	24.5	21.7
25 - 34	13.5	24.8	68.2

Sex

As would be expected, the veterans population in education is predominantly male. In the California sample, 89.4 percent of the respondents indicated they were male; 10.6 percent female. This compared with 59.0 percent male and 41.0 percent female in the total sample. It is surprising to note that the number of women who described themselves as veterans is significantly higher than the total number of women in the national veterans population, a finding that may be partially explained by the small number of widows and orphans who are included in the sample. Within the veterans sample, the largest percentage of women veterans are enrolled in the

Independent Colleges and Universities, where 14.2 percent of respondents described themselves as women.

Marital Status and Dependents

Veterans are much more likely to be married than are students in general or students in California. The Bureau of the Census reports that only 20.3 percent of the total undergraduate enrollment is married with spouse present; the total California population includes 25.4 percent of students married [illegible] spouse present; while the California veterans population includes 54.9 percent of students with spouse present. For veterans with dependent children in California, the mean is 1.9 children:

Table 34: MARITAL STATUS -- CALIFORNIA VETERANS POPULATION

Never Married	37.3%
Married	54.9%
Separated	2.0
Divorced	4.5
Widowed	.5
Other	.8

For those veterans who have children dependent on them, 41.9 percent report one child, 34.5 percent two children, 14.4 percent three children, 6.8 percent four children, and 2.3 percent five or more children.

Ethnic Background

In the California veterans population, 71.1 percent of the respondents indicated that they described themselves as Caucasian or white, as compared with 71.3 percent of the total California population who described themselves as such. Among the non-white population there was a somewhat higher percentage of veterans who described themselves as black (African, American Negro) and Chicano (Mexican-American); a somewhat smaller percentage who described themselves as Oriental (Asian-American) than in the total California population.

Table 35: ETHNIC BACKGROUND -- CALIFORNIA TOTAL AND VETERANS POPULATIONS

How Do You Describe Yourself	Total California Population	Veterans
American Indian/ Native American	3.2%	3.9%
Black/African-American/Negro	5.0	7.0
Caucasian/White	71.3	71.1
Chicano/Mexican-American	5.7	8.7
Oriental/Asian-American	7.4	4.0
Other Spanish-speaking American	1.3	1.4
Other	6.1	4.0

Because of the specific comparability of percentage of Caucasian/white and the potential difficulties in distinguishing between membership in specific non-white subgroups, the subsequent analyses in this report which have ethnic group membership as a variable will be confined to white and non-white groups.

Family Income Background

The median income in 1971 for the parents of veterans in the California study was somewhat lower than that for the total California group, falling between $9,000 and $11,999 as compared with a median for the total group of between $12,000 and $14,999. In the total sample 19.1 percent of the students came from families with incomes of less than $6,000 per year; in the veterans group 27.3 percent of the respondents indicated that their family income was below $6,000. The total group included 12.6 percent of students from families with annual incomes of over $25,000 while the veterans group included only 7.6 percent of families above that level.

Within the veterans group there was a marked difference in family income background between the white and non-white veteran. The white veteran came from a family with a mean income of $12,062. The non-white veteran's family had a mean income of $9,066. Only 22.5 percent of the white veterans reported coming from families with incomes of less than $6,000; 37.8 percent of the non-white veteran's families were below that level, while 9.1 percent of the white veterans came from families with incomes over $25,000, only 4.3 percent of the non-white veteran's parents had such incomes. The following table compares the parental income of the total California student population, the total California veteran population, and the white-non-white veteran groups.

Table 36: 1971 INCOME OF PARENTS -- SELECTED POPULATIONS

Parental Income 1971	Total Sample	Total Veterans	White Veterans	Non-White Veterans
Less than $ 3,000	9.5%	14.0%	10.8%	21.0%
$ 3,000 to $ 5,999	9.6	13.3	11.7	16.8
$ 6,000 to $ 7,499	7.3	9.1	8.6	10.4
$ 7,500 to $ 8,999	7.4	9.7	9.2	10.9
$ 9,000 to $11,999	15.2	16.9	17.7	15.0
$12,000 to $14,999	14.3	13.3	14.6	10.3
$15,000 to $17,999	9.6	7.0	8.0	4.8
$18,000 to $20,999	7.9	5.2	5.7	4.0
$21,000 to $24,999	6.6	3.8	4.5	2.4
$25,000 and above	12.6	7.6	9.1	4.3

It appears that the veteran comes from a lower economic sector than does the general college student, and that the non-white veteran comes from a family background that is even lower than that typical of the total group.

Class Level

The veteran in education in California is more likely to be in the upper-division (college junior or higher) than is the typical student in the California survey or the typical student in the United States. Of California veterans 62.7 percent reported that they had completed at least two years of college; 58.9 percent of the total California group had completed two years, and only 46.5 percent of the total U.S. undergraduate population is enrolled at the upper level.

Table 37: COLLEGE CLASS LEVEL -- SELECTED POPULATIONS

Class Level	U.S. Undergraduate Enrollment October, 1971	Total California Population Spring, 1972	Veterans
First Year	30.2%	21.5%	17.2%
Second Year	23.5	19.6	20.1
Third Year	17.2	18.9	20.5
Fourth Year	14.5	16.6	18.2
Fifth or Higher	14.7	20.4	22.5
Other	--	3.0	1.4

Career Objective

The California veteran is most likely to be registered in a program of Business Administration (19.7 percent) or Humanities and Social Sciences (24.5 percent). Agriculture (3.1 percent), Health Professions (3.5 percent) and Nursing (1.2 percent) have the smallest enrollments.

Table 38: TYPE OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM -- CALIFORNIA VETERANS

Type of Program	
Agriculatural Sciences	3.1%
Business Administration	19.7
Humanities or Social Sciences	24.5
Physical and Life Sciences, Mathematics	10.9
Engineering, Architecture	10.1
Education	6.7
Nursing	1.2
Health Professions	3.5
Law	6.5
Undeclared Major or Other	13.8

Chapter 6

DISADVANTAGED AND BLACK VETERANS

Special attention to the educationally disadvantaged is a relatively recent development. Increased efforts are being made, in the form of special outreach, counseling, educational and training programs, to reach and motivate the disadvantaged both in service and after discharge. And, although the participation rate for the disadvantaged is increasing, it is still substantially below the rate for all veterans. Data clearly show that the lack of a high school diploma is a marked handicap to veterans in terms of income and employment

The black veteran faces the special disadvantage of racial bias upon return to civilian life. Problems which affect all veterans to some degree, specifically employment, education, and other than honorable discharges, are generally much more severe for the black veteran. There are currently no programs operated by the Veterans Administration or other federal agency whose concern is exclusively with the black veteran. However, the United States Veterans Assistance Centers, by virtue of their inner-city locations, tend to reach a disproportionately large number of minority veterans.

This chapter describes the special problems of these two groups and the programs designed to provide educational and training assistance to alleviate them.

Educationally Disadvantaged

The "educationally disadvantaged" or "disadvantaged" veteran or serviceman, as defined by the Veterans Administration, is one who has not completed high school or the equivalent, i.e., any veteran or serviceman who has completed one to 11 years of school. This category is sometimes more widely interpreted to include those with low Armed Forces Qualifying Test scores, but for the purpose of this analysis, the VA definition will be used. At no point, however, should the phrase "educationally disadvantaged" be interpreted to mean black or minority veterans exclusively.

Due to a scarcity of data, it is not possible to obtain extensive information pertaining to the educational levels of World War II and Korean Conflict veterans. However, available data show that the number of veterans without a high school diploma at the time they apply for benefits has declined sharply.[1] A much smaller proportion of educationally-disadvantaged Vietnam veterans than World War II or Korean veterans ever reach the stage of applying for benefits (see Table 39). However, the educationally-disadvantaged veteran of today is much different than his counterpart of WW II.

The percentage of the disadvantaged applying for benefits has declined from 82.8 percent for World War II and 77.3 percent for Korea to 40.4 percent for the disadvantaged Vietnam Era veteran. However, the Vietnam Era veteran, unlike veterans of the previous two periods, has had the opportunity to pursue programs of high school education prior to discharge.

Table 39: TOTAL VETERANS SEPARATED WITHOUT HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA AND PERCENT APPLYING FOR BENEFITS, 1973

	WWII	Korea	Vietnam
% Educationally Disadvantaged Applicants for Benefits	45.2	29.0	8.2
% Veterans Separated Without High School Diploma	54.6	37.5	20.2

Source: DVB IB, 24-73-3, Appendix Table 21, April, 1973

Figures compiled from the Report of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, (Veterans Educational and Training Assistance Amendment of 1969) give an indication of the comparability of participation rates for the disadvantaged for the three periods.

Table 40: PERCENT DISADVANTAGED TRAINED WITHIN FIRST THREE YEARS FOLLOWING THREE CONFLICT PERIODS

Period	% Trained 1st 3 Years	% Educationally Disadvantaged Trained, 1st 3 years
WW II 7/44-6/47	26	17
Korean 9/52-9/55	26	18
Post-Korean 6/66-6/69	21	6

Source: National Urban League, Black GI's and Veterans Briefing Book, December, 1969.

The VA's Readjustment Profile for Recently Separated Vietnam Veterans, June 1972 indicates according to a point-in-time sample, 11.8 percent of servicemen had completed 11 years of schooling or less at time of discharge. The rate of black educationally disadvantaged male enlisted reservists was considerably higher at 19.4 percent. The percentage of educationally disadvantaged servicemen was 15.2%, while disadvantaged veterans receiving initial interviews was 37.4 percent for the period from July 1, 1970 to May 30, 1973. This percentage compares favorably with the rate of noneducationally disadvantaged veterans who received initial interviews, 31.6 percent (see Table 63: "Informing the Veteran"). Only 30.5 percent of disadvantaged veterans contacted the VA as compared to 41.9 percent for all veterans and 50.4 percent for those with one or more years of college.

The data show that a greater percentage of the educationally disadvantaged, in most recent months, have received initial interviews by the VA. However, it is important to note that more of the disadvantaged (60.4 percent according to the profile as compared with 51.6 percent for all veterans) experience difficulty in readjusting to civilian life.

Contact

Although some 79.9 percent of disadvantaged veterans were contacted by the VA, only 37.4 percent received initial interviews. The disadvantaged receive a series of three letters from the VA, apprising them of their benefits and encouraging them to make use of their entitlements. The letter, which is of an impersonal nature, does not take into account the fact that the disadvantaged are less likely to respond to printed material.[2] Further, the disadvantaged veteran in particular is more mobile than veterans in general thereby reducing the chances that attempts to reach him by mail will succeed. The percentage of the disadvantaged-who stated that they received no help or advice from any source is relatively high, 45.6 percent, as reported by the Readjustment Profile.

Employment

The major concern of the disadvantaged veteran is employment. The Readjustment Profile found a 27.8 percent unemployment rate for veterans one year following separation. Unemployment of the educationally disadvantaged in urban areas (100,000 inhabitants or more) is even higher at 32.2 percent.[3] However, only some 14.3 percent of the educationally disadvantaged during this same period contacted the VA for employment assistance.

The analysis of veterans' incomes pointed out the decreased earning potential of those among the educationally disadvantaged who experience difficulty in finding and maintaining steady employment. It should be noted also that the unemployed have lower Armed Forces Qualifying Test scores. Over one-third of unemployed respondents scored in the 0-29 percentile range, while more than half scored in the 40th percentile or lower.[4] Further, as AFQT scores increase, unemployment decreases.[5] Unemployment among the disadvantaged was found to decrease with age and the number of dependents.

Surprisingly, veterans who participated in some form of educational improvement program while in the service experienced higher unemployment than those who did not. This may be explained by the fact that those who participated in these programs were most lacking in education. As might be expected, unemployment was also found to be greater among those disadvantaged veterans with no pre-service work experience.

Training

The Bureau of the Budget in cooperation with the Trans-Century Corporation conducted a survey of disadvantaged veterans living in urban and non-urban areas. Seven percent of their sample were inducted into the Armed Forces under Project 100,000, an effort initiated by the Department of Defense in October of 1966 aimed at enlisting a higher number of the educationally and socially disadvantaged, who traditionally score too low on the Armed

Forces Qualifying Test to be inducated. Ostensibly the program was designed to help integrate the hard-core disadvantaged into mainstream society by providing them with skills and training while in-service. This wartime program failed, to a large extent, to accomplish its stated goals. More than 42 percent of black and 31.5 percent of white Project 100,000 inductees were assigned to combat specialties units, where they were much less likely to learn a skill marketable outside the Armed Forces.[6] An even greater percentage received training, which, however useful in combat related areas, was of little use after discharge. Unemployment rates for discharged Project 100,000 inductees are not available.

Project Transition. Project transition was initiated by Presidential directive in 1967. The program began in 1968 and is available to servicemen stationed at bases offering Transition programs who have six months or less of active service remaining. The program was established to provide guidance and training or educational opportunities to servicemen during their final months of active duty to prepare them for re-entry into civilian life. The program also attempts to provide its participants with a skill which [illegible] improve their employment possibilities.

The serviceman is provided with counseling to determine his qualifications and preferences and to make him aware of the existing programs. Skills training consists of courses on-the-job in military skills related to civilian occupations or off-base courses under the Manpower Development and Training Act or apprenticeship. At some bases, courses are provided by private industry near the base to meet special employment requirements.[7]

The education component of Transition prepares enrollees for the GED or provides them with courses needed to enter specific career fields. In this sense, skill training and education may be combined.

Courses are provided to the serviceman both during and after duty hours, on and off base by private military resources. Servicemen are apprised of job opportunities through cooperation with the Department of Labor and state and local Employment Service offices and their Transition counselor. During training, however, the servicemen receive only regular military pay. The following table summarizes program services and funding:

Table 41: STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF PROGRAM SERVICES AND FUNDING

Program Services	1968	1969	1970
Total Number of Separatees Counseled	306,000	325,000	350,000
Total Number of Separatees Trained	45,000	50,000	50,000

Funding Levels	FY 1968	FY 1969	FY 1970	FY 1971	FY 1972
In Millions	$10.4	$14.4	$14.8	$14.3	$14.5

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, National Evaluation of Manpower Services for Veterans, Vol. II, pg. 23.

Although 4 percent of the respondents in the Trans-Century (Bureau of the Budget) Study received skill training in Transition, less than 1 percent of respondents said that they were employed in the skill for which they were trained. Furthermore, only 40 percent of this disadvantaged sample claimed to be informed of the program's existence. Data from the Trans-Century study also indicates that Transition reaches blacks disproportionately for skills training and whites disproportionately for counseling and education.[8]

Other criticisms leveled against Transition, which has improved substantially since its first years of operation are:

(1) too little time in training

(2) inability of servicemen to secure release from duty to participate

Project VAULT. An additional branch of Project Transition is Project VAULT (Veterans Accelerated Urban Learning for Teaching). Presently, the program is located only in Missouri but program expansion is being contemplated by the VA and DOD.

The program, which began in the summer of 1968, aims to meet the demand for additional qualified male teachers in "urban ghetto schools." It provides educational training and internships in the public school system to disadvantaged veterans who might not otherwise be able to attend college.

Servicemens Early Educational Counseling (SEEC). The SEEC program was established in July, 1971 as a pilot program with funding for one year. The program, which is no longer in existence, was operated by the Office of Education (OE) and limited to separatees from military service. The objectives of the program were to facilitate the re-entry of separating servicemen into civilian life by helping them to formulate career plans prior to discharge. Orientation, group and individual counseling concerning educational and career opportunities were provided the separatee. Counseling and other support for the program were provided jointly by the Department of Defense, the VA, and the Department of Labor.

SEEC reached 82,843 individuals in group counseling and 19,873 in individual counseling in its first year of operation. However, in its second year of operation, the program was phased down and terminated due to a "change in emphasis" within the Office of Education.

Fifty percent of the disadvantaged sample in the Trans-Century Study not in education or training stated that they wished to be. Lack of funds, either to make the initial payment or to remain in training was cited as the biggest barrier for those disadvantaged not in education or training. However, the advance payment provision, which recently became operative, should alleviate some of the financial strain which entry into education formerly placed on the disadvantaged.

The study further concludes that the veteran population is mobile to a much greater extent than the general veteran population.[9] This suggests, perhaps, that mailing may not be the most effective manner in which the VA may reach the disadvantaged veteran. This, however, is currently one of the major ways in which the VA attempts to reach the disadvantaged. The disadvantaged surveyed in this sample also did not participate in traditional veterans' activities or organizations. However, the VA currently sends "outreach" or lists of disadvantaged veterans to be contacted to these organizations. Only 6.9 percent disadvantaged from urban areas and 10.5 percent of those from non-urban areas joined veterans organizations; these percentages were about 50 percent lower for educationally-disadvantaged blacks.

Pre-Discharge Education Program

The Predischarge Education Program (PREP), which has as its focus the educationally-disadvantaged serviceman, provides him with the opportunity to complete his high school education and secure his diploma prior to discharge. The serviceman may not pursue vocational courses but may pursue deficiency, remedial, or refresher courses as required to qualify him for entrance into an approved postsecondary program. Free entitlement exists for the benefit of disadvantaged veterans and differs from the Predischarge Education Program only in that the veteran, under free entitlement, may pursue courses leading to the GED examination.

Participation Rates

In "Today's GI Bill," an article appearing in Reveille Magazine, Stuart Feldman has said, "GI bill use has unfortunately been inverse to need. Veterans who attended college prior to entry into the Armed Forces are almost three times as likely to use the GI bill for college or junior college,"[10] as veterans with no pre-service college. It would seem, then, that pre-service exposure to postsecondary education is a major influence of GI bill use.

The participation rate for the educationally-disadvantaged Vietnam Era veteran is estimated by the VA to be 28.9 percent as of April 1973. The total number of disadvantaged veterans (and servicemen) who have trained under the GI bill is 402,660; 216,439 of these were Vietnam Era veterans, 54,427 were servicemen.

The majority of the educationally disadvantaged selected programs which require no high school certification (see table 42); 68.8 percent of Vietnam veterans, 96.1 percent of servicemen, and 75.1 percent of all disadvantaged veterans ever in training selected programs other than college. About two-thirds of Vietnam veterans enrolled in vocational or technical education.[11]

To date, some 173,260 servicemen and veterans entered training under the Predischarge Education Program or other free entitlement. Of these 102,000 had from 1 to 11 years of schooling.[12] Inavailability of data for the educationally disadvantaged of World War II and Korea make the comparison of participation rates difficult.

Of all disadvantaged veterans, 20.3 percent entered college level training, 68.8 percent entered other schools, and 10.9 percent entered on-the-job training. Figures for all disadvantaged veterans and servicemen compared with those for Vietnam veterans indicate that a larger percentage of disadvantaged Vietnam veterans entered college level training (see Table 42). Among disadvantaged servicemen, only 3.9 percent entered college level training, the remainder attending "other schools."

The percentage of disadvantaged Vietnam veterans as compared with servicemen who enter high school training is small. Only 1.8 percent of Vietnam veterans with less than a high school education have enrolled in a high school curriculum; ~~14.5~~ percent of servicemen from the same period have enrolled in a high school curriculum; 14.5 percent of servicemen from the same period have enrolled in a program of high school training (see Table 43). Among Vietnam Era veterans and servicemen, the disadvantaged are much more likely to pursue a high school education in-service rather than after discharge. Whether this relates to the accessibility of in-service programs, as opposed to civilian education for the disadvantaged, cannot be determined. However, this finding underscores the importance of availability and emphasis on in-service education and training programs such as PREP and Project Transition.

The percentage distribution for all persons ever in training yields more conclusive evidence with 1.8 percent of disadvantaged veterans and 14.5 percent of servicemen seeking high school diplomas. For the disadvantaged

Table 42: PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ALL PERSONS EVER IN TRAINING

Type of Training by Prior Educational Attainment
April 1973

Prior Educational Attainment	Total	Type Training Entered College Level	Type Training Entered Other Schools	Type Training Entered On-Job
Total	100.0%	51.8%	40.0%	8.2%
Not a High School Graduate	100.0	17.1	75.1	7.8
High School Graduate	100.0	47.7	42.2	10.1
One or More Years of College	100.0	80.6	17.0	2.4
Vietnam Era Veterans	100.0	56.9	32.8	10.3
Not a High School Graduate	100.0	20.3	68.8	10.9
High School Graduate	100.0	53.1	34.6	12.3
One or More Years of College	100.0	84.4	12.2	3.4
Servicemen	100.0	21.8	78.2	--
Not a High School Graduate	100.0	3.9	96.1	--
High School Graduate	100.0	10.3	89.7	--
One or More Years of College	100.0	59.3	40.7	--

Source: Information Bulletin IB 24-73-3, April, 1973, Appendix Table 8

Table 43: PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF VIETNAM EPA VETERANS AND SERVICEMEN EVER IN TRAINING

Level of Training Showing Full-Time and Part-Time - Cumulative through April 1973

	TOTAL				VETERANS				SERVICEMEN			
Level of Training	Total	Full Time	Part Time	Correspondence	Total	Full Time	Part Time	Correspondence	Total	Full Time	Part Time	Correspondence
Total - All Levels	100.0	51.9	27.7	20.4	100.0	57.2	27.1	15.7	100.0	11.3	32.1	56.6
College - Total	52.9	33.2	19.5	0.2	56.9	36.6	20.1	0.2	21.8	7.6	14.0	0.2
Graduate	8.5	5.3	3.2	0.0	8.1	5.6	2.5	0.0	11.5	3.1	8.4	0.0
Undergraduate	43.4	27.5	15.8	0.1	48.0	30.6	17.3	0.1	8.3	3.8	4.4	0.1
Non-Degree	1.0	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.1	2.0	0.7	1.2	0.1
Below College - Total	37.9	9.5	8.2	20.2	32.8	10.3	7.0	15.5	78.2	3.7	18.1	56.4
Vocational or Tech. Post High School	7.7	2.6	1.5	3.6	6.8	2.9	1.6	2.3	15.0	0.4	0.9	13.7
Other Voc. or Tech.	25.0	5.9	2.9	16.2	22.5	6.6	3.1	12.8	44.1	0.5	1.3	42.3
High School	3.2	0.8	2.0	0.4	1.8	0.6	0.8	0.4	14.5	2.8	11.3	0.4
Flight Training	1.8	-	1.8	-	1.5	-	1.5	-	4.6	-	4.6	-
Cooperative Farm	0.2	0.2	0.0	-	0.2	0.2	0.0	-	-	-	-	-
On-Job Training - Total	9.2	9.2	-	-	10.3	10.3	-	-	-	-	-	-
Apprentice	4.8	4.8	-	-	5.4	5.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other	4.4	4.4	-	-	4.9	4.9	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: Information Bulletin IB 24-73-3, April 1973, Appendix Table 8 veteran, who experiences as much as 20 percent greater difficulty in readjustment than other veterans, the ability to secure a high school education while in service affords him the choice of entering a postsecondary program or entering the job market with more solid credentials (see Table 43).

Attention

Generally, the disadvantaged veteran is receiving more attention currently than he has in the past. The established free entitlement, PREP, and to a lesser extent, tutorial assistance programs address themselves specifically to the needs of the educationally disadvantaged. Coordination between the VA, the Department of Labor, and the Department of Defense have resulted in increased opportunity for the disadvantaged to gain skills, training, and education prior to discharge. The VA has made especially successful efforts at helping the disadvantaged to avail themselves of on-the-job training opportunities. Mailing to the disadvantaged and the dispatch of outreach lists to veterans organizations also represent significant efforts on the part of the VA to assist this group. However, the veterans groups receiving outreach lists should be expanded to include all organizations which might have better rapport with the disadvantaged, especially the black veteran.

The actual percentage of the disadvantaged receiving initial interviews by the veterans is still low, 37.4 percent.[13] However, when compared with the percentage of all veterans receiving initial interviews, 31.6 percent, the percentage of the disadvantaged intereviewed is commendable especially in light of the fact that this group is more difficult to contact and much less apt to contact the VA (54.4 percent as compared to 64.8 percent for all veterans).[14]

Table 44: PERCENT OF VETERANS RECEIVING A GED EQUIVALENCY CERTIFICATE BY PERIOD OF RECEIPT

Period of Receipt	Percent
In the service	9.2%
After separation	1.0
Period not stated	0.4
TOTAL	10.6%

Source: Readjustment Profile for Recently Separated Vietnam Veterans, Unpublished Draft, June 1973, Veterans Administration

To review a point made previously, the Bureau of the Budget/Trans-Century disadvantaged sample cited lack of funds as the major reason for not entering training. Advance payment should eliminate the problem of insufficient funds for initial payment; the increased emphasis by the VA on introducing disadvantaged veterans to on-the-job training should provide financial aid to the sizable percentage of the disadvantaged, 35.9 percent, who indicate an interest in entering training at a later time.[15]

Black Veterans

In the Vietnam Conflict, blacks accounted for about 20 percent of combat fatalities even though they comprised only 12.6 percent of Armed Forces personnel. However, upon return to civilian life, a plethora of factors combine to make the participation rate among blacks the lowest of any subgroup in training. Further, former attitudes of the VA with respect to the compilation of racial data make an assessment of comparability of participation among blacks difficult.

Generally, problems which affect all veterans are much more severe for the black GI. The following table shows the disparity in unemployment rates.

Table 45: UNEMPLOYMENT OF VIETNAM-ERA VETERANS (Age 20-24)

	Black	White
4th Quarter 1971	15.9%	10.4%
1st Quarter 1972	22.4%	12.7%
2nd Quarter 1972	15.1%	9.6%
3rd Quarter 1972	18.5%	8.8%

Source: National Urban League, Military and Veterans Affairs, January 12, 1973.

Not only are unemployment rates for black veterans higher, but they also express dissatisfaction with their jobs, on the basis of salary and working conditions, than their white counterparts.

To the extent that current education and training benefits are inadequate the employment and earning potential of the black veteran, (as noted in the discussion of veterans' income) limited family contribution, and dependency status tend to discourage a greater proportion of blacks than other veterans from participating in GI benefits.

Use of benefits and special programs, however, could have a more substantial impact on the earning potential of black than white veterans. Data clearly show that the percent difference between the earnings of high school graduates and non-high school graduates is much greater for blacks.

Table 46: RELATIVE INCREASE IN WEEKLY EARNINGS WITH INCREASING EDUCATION

	Percent Difference Between Earnings of H.S. Grad, and Non-H.S. Graduate	Percent Difference Between Earnings of Some College and H.S. Graduate	Percent Difference Between Earnings of Some College and Non-H.S. Graduate
Among Black Veterans	+10	+5	+15
Among White Veterans	+ 4	+4	+8

Source: National Urban League, Black GIs and Veterans Briefing Book, Table II-2, December 1969.

Another problem which affects blacks disproportionately is other-than-honorable discharges. Administrative, undesirable, or dishonorable discharges make it difficult or impossible for the veteran to obtain his entitlement and result in the consignment of blacks in this category to underemployment or unemployment. It has been the experience of the National Urban League in dealing with this category of veterans that corporations who would hire civilians who had been convicted of misdemeanors would not hire veterans with Administrative Discharges. (Consequently, they began an educational program with business and industry to teach them to "differentiate between administrative and punitive discharges.")[16]

Within all services, blacks receive a greater percentage of other-than-honorable discharges than whites. The following table outlines the ratio of black to white dishonorable discharges:

Table 47: RATIO OF BLACK TO WHITE DISHONORABLE DISCHARGES

	Black:White
Air Force	3.679:1
Army	1.823:1
Navy	1.786:1
Marines	1.672:1

(Where the ratio is not 1:1 other factors are involved.)

Source: National Urban League, Military and Veterans Affairs Program, January 1973.

Due to its size, and the high number of blacks in its ranks, the Army's other-than-honorable discharge rate has an especially adverse effect on the black community.

Contact

The percentage of black veterans who reportedly contacted the VA regarding education or training remained relatively constant for veterans separated from 1963 to 1972, around 45 percent.[17] However, the percentage of black veterans which the VA claims to have contacted over this same period is relatively high, 80 percent or more. Yet the percentage of black veterans in training claiming to have received help or advice from any source is only 17.3 percent as reported by the Readjustment Profile (June 1973) (see Table 49). The percentage of black veterans who claim to have received help or advice from the VA or one of its representatives exclusively was 9.5 percent. While this is low, the percentage for other veterans in training was 3.6 percent.

Participation

National Urban League sources report a total participation rate of 53 percent among black veterans under the Korean GI Bill (late 1962-early 1963).[18] Participation under the current GI Bill among blacks has ranged from about 16 percent for those separated in 1968 to above 25 percent for those separated in early fiscal year 1971.[19] The current participation rate, as of June 1973, among blacks as reported by the VA is 24.1 percent. If Urban League sources are correct, current participation among blacks is some 28.9 percent less than the 53 percent total participation rate for the black Korean Conflict veteran. While total participation rates and sample rates for blacks are not strictly comparable, this analysis does point out that current black participation is substantially less.

The breakdown by educational level among blacks in training reveals that the disadvantaged black train at only one-third the rate of black veterans who have completed one or more years of college but slightly higher than the non-black disadvantaged veteran. However, there is an encouraging increase in participation among those who have completed high school.

Table 46. PARTICIPATION BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

	Training Participation Rates	
	Negro	Non-Negro
Total	24.1%	32.8%
1-11 grade	13.3	10.4
12th grade	23.2	28.8
one or more years of college	39.4	49.6

Source: Veterans Administration, Readjustment Profile (Draft), June 1973.

The Black Veteran and Veterans Organizations

One source to which veterans have traditionally turned is the veterans' organization. Traditional veterans' organizations, however, have only minimal participation by black veterans and consequently the programs of the organization do not reflect the specific needs of black GIs. The American Legion, the only major organization supplying membership data, shows a 3.5 membership of blacks in its ranks. Furthermore, the focus of these organizations is not

Table 49: PERCENT OF TRAINEES RECEIVING HELP OR ADVICE ABOUT TRAINING BY SOURCE OF ADVICE, BY RACE, RANK, EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND SEX

		Received Advice or Help. By What Source?									
		Professional Counselor									
Group	Did Not Receive Advice or Help	At VA Facility	At Some Other Facility	Facility Not Stated	Total	VA Contact Representative	Friend or Relative	Other	Not Stated	Total Recvd. Help	Grand Total
Grand Total	88.7%	3.0%	2.5%	1.5%	7.0%	1.8%	3.5%	1.3%	0.2%	11.3%	100.0%
Officers	92.1	1.8	1.7	0.9	4.4	0.2	3.0	1.3	0.0	7.9	100.0
Enlisted Personnel	88.4	3.1	2.6	1.5	7.2	1.9	3.5	1.3	0.2	11.6	100.0
Educational Level											
01-11th Grade	79.4	5.0	6.6	2.6	14.2	2.9	6.0	1.1	1.3	20.6	100.0
12th Grade	87.8	2.9	2.8	1.8	7.5	2.2	3.3	1.6	0.2	12.2	100.0
One or more years of college	91.1	2.7	1.7	1.0	5.4	1.0	3.3	1.1	0.1	8.9	100.0
Race - Male Enlisted Reservists Only											
Negro	82.7	6.4	3.5	3.5	13.4	3.1	5.0	0.2	0.1	17.3	100.0
Non-Negro	90.3	2.0	2.5	1.4	5.9	1.6	2.9	0.9	0.3	9.7	100.0
Sex											
Male	88.7	3.0	2.5	1.5	7.0	1.8	3.5	1.3	0.2	11.3	100.0
Female	88.2	1.4	3.9	2.0	7.3	0.6	3.7	0.8	0.0	11.8	100.0

Source: Readjustment Profile for Recently Separated Vietnam Veterans, Unpublished Draft, June 1973, Veterans Administration in large urban areas where the majority of black veterans are concentrated. Consequently, a number of organizations have been formed or supported which do speak to the needs of black veterans. By virtue of their location, personnel, and constituency, these organizations are more accessible to black veterans. Among the organizations which are concerned with their problems are Model Cities and Community Action Program (CAP), both of which are discussed in the "Counseling and Outreach" section of the report, and the National Urban League.

The Urban League organized its office of Military and Veterans Affairs in 1967 as a "conduit to deliver needed services to minority veterans." Its initiation and perpetuation were in response to what the League felt to be a failure to reach the target population. The national office focuses on increased employment in government and industry for the black veteran and monitoring of PREP and Project Transition to assure a fair share of benefits to the black serviceman.

The range of assistance offered by the League is described in literature distributed by the base personnel officer. Each serviceman is sent, on request, a detailed questionnaire which enables him to request in advance (90-120 days before discharge) the assistance that he will need upon his return home. This profile is then sent to an Urban League affiliate in one of 102 cities which then aids the veteran in finding employment and determining how to use his entitlement. The League has a formal agreement with the American National Red Cross Military Families Division to which it refers veterans who live in cities or areas where there is no Urban Leage affiliate.

In 1971, the League developed a working relationship with the American Legion with whom they cooperate in arranging to have other than honorable discharges, previously discussed as a major problem among black servicemen, adjusted. The Urban League also has an agreement with each branch of the Armed Forces which provides that the branch involved inform the minority serviceman of the program's existence and give the eligible serviceman an

Chapter 7

PUBLIC ATTENTION TO VETERANS

The treatment accorded veterans of each of the three wars has been determined in large measure by public attitudes and attention. Such attention is reflected in press and other media coverage, the activities of veterans' service organizations and special provisions of governmental programs.

Public Attitudes Toward Veterans and Wars

World War II was unquestionably one of the most popular wars ever fought by Americans. The popularity of the war and the extensive public involvement in the war effort no doubt contributed to the attention and generosity extended to the returning GIs. The American public more easily accepted and assisted veterans of a "necessary" and "just" war.

The Korean Conflict was less widely approved and created a great deal of ambiguity in the mind of the public as well as the soldier. A poll in 1953 found that only 19 percent of those questioned never doubted whether the Korean War was worth it.[1]

By 1969, the Vietnam War was evoking public demonstrations and debate over the "rightness" of the nation's involvement in Indochina. According to Gallup polls, in December 1969, 55 percent of the American public classified themselves as "doves" and 31 percent as "hawks" -- almost exactly the reverse of two years previously.[2] Since then, the Vietnam War became still more unpopular, and ending the war became the central theme of both Presidential candidates in 1972.

According to a recent Louis Harris study, the unpopularity of the Vietnam War appears to have "rubbed off" to some extent on public attitudes toward Vietnam veterans. This is especially true among the young, the college educated, and city dwellers.[3] Although 86 percent of those over 50 years of age strongly agreed that Vietnam veterans deserve the same respect as earlier veterans, only 69 percent of the 18-24 age group strongly agreed. While 68 percent strongly agreed that veterans should feel proud to have served their country, only 54 percent of the 18-24 year olds agree. According to the Harris findings, the view that veterans of the Vietnam Conflict were "taken advantage of" or "made suckers" is agreed with slightly more (49 percent) than it is disagreed with (42 percent).[4]

When asked to compare the reception accorded to Vietnam veterans with the reception accorded earlier veterans, seven percent said today's veterans are treated better, 32 percent said they are treated the same, and 48 percent felt that today's veterans are treated worse than previous veterans. Significantly, 53 percent of veterans polled felt that the reception of today's veteran is worse than in the past. While 72 percent of older veterans felt that their reception had been "very friendly," only 53 percent of Vietnam Era veterans could say the same.[5]

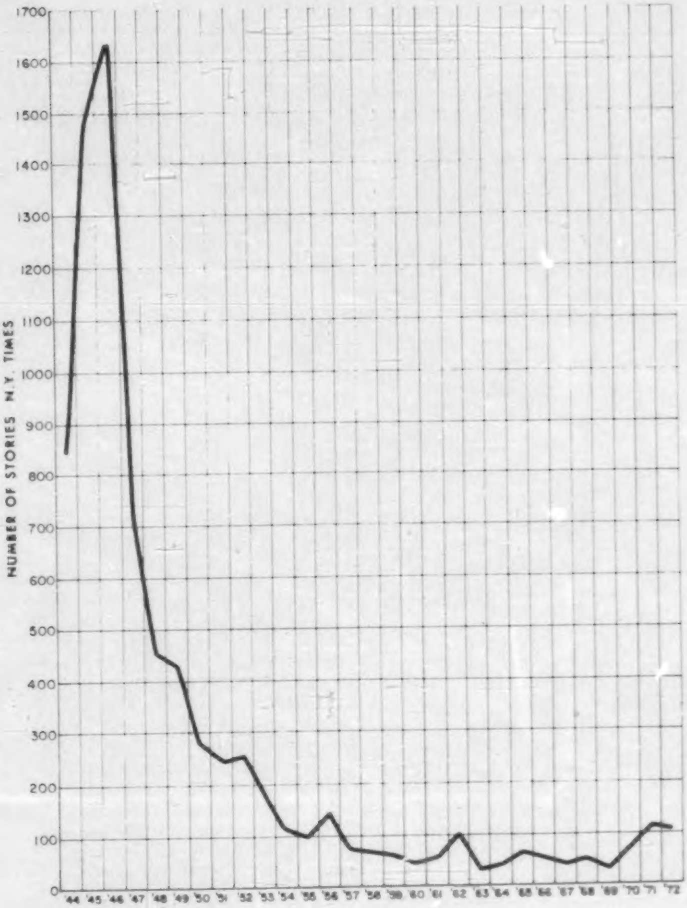
Media Attention

Immediately after World War II, stories about veterans and their problems were major news items since almost everyone was closely associated with ex-servicemen. In the following figures, the extensiveness of World War II media attention to veterans may be contrasted with the relatively meager attention accorded to veterans during the Korean and Vietnam periods.

The changing public image of the veteran is revealed in the titles of some of the popular journal articles of the late 1940s: "Are We Making a Bum Out of GI Joe?", "How Many Wrongs Make A GI Bill of Rights?", and "There's a Shell Game at Every Turn for a Man With an Eagle on His Lapel".

FIGURE 9

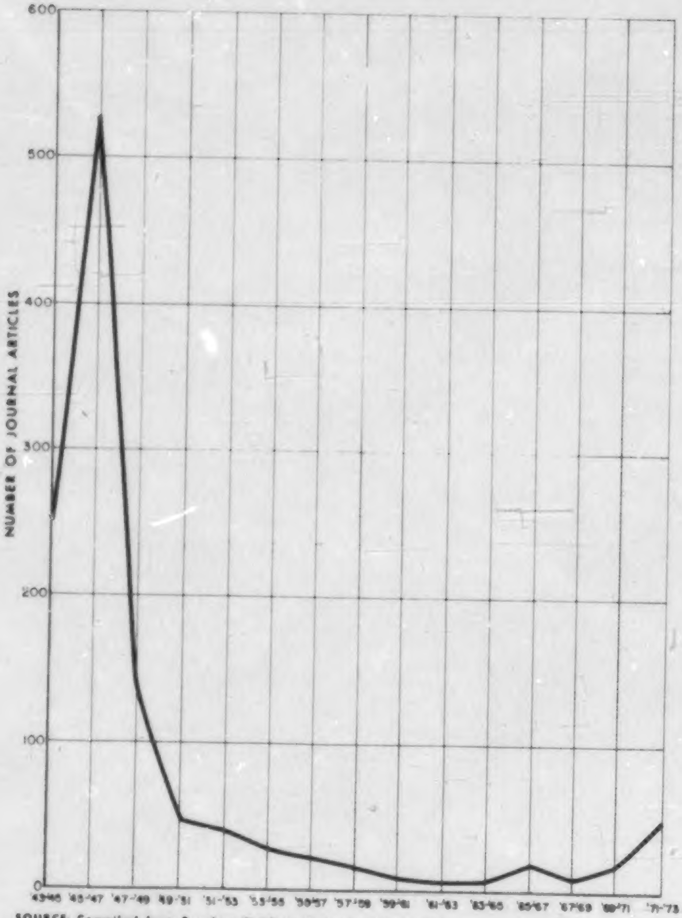
NEWS STORIES ON VETERANS



SOURCE: Compiled from New York Times Index (Citations Listed under "Veterans, U.S.": Excluding V.A. and Veterans Organization Stories)

FIGURE 10

ATTENTION TO VETERANS-POPULAR JOURNALS



SOURCE: Compiled from Readers Guide to Periodical Literature.

NOTES: 1) Two year periods vary in beginning and ending months. Periods since 1955 include March through February.

2) Reader's Guide listings appear under "Servicemen discharged-U.S." through Feb. '67, and under "Veterans, U.S.", thereafter.

During the sixties and early seventies appeared such articles as: "Scars of Vietnam", "Return to Apathy", "No Flood of Benefits for Vietnam Vets", "Invisible Army", "America We are Not Your Boys", and "No One Gives a Damn". Public concern, as represented in the media at least, seems to have shifted away from fears that veterans may have been overindulged toward concern that their needs are not adequately met. The virtual absence of stories about veteran or institutional abuse of the GI Bill in recent years may serve to indicate some recognition of the fact that educational allowance payments are no longer so adequate as to be capable of being "abused." It may also indicate growing awareness of the value of the GI Bill investment, inadequate reporting, or increasing vigilance by the VA and the State Approving Agencies in effecting consumer protection.

Attention of Veterans Organizations

The comparability of "attention" that has been and is being given to veterans of the three periods by American society, is reflected in the role of the veterans organizations in generating and focusing such attention.

After WW II ex-GIs swelled the membership roles of the traditional veterans' organizations seeking the comradeship of their fellow warriors as well as job assistance and political muscle in dealing with the government. American Legion membership nearly trebled in one year, going from 1,667,742 in 1945 to 3,326,556 in 1946.[6] The Veterans of Foreign Wars' membership went from 250,000 in 1940 to over a million by early 1947.[7]

The Legion had been chartered by Congress as a "national patriotic organization" in 1919. By World War II, it had become known for both its community service activities and its political lobbying efforts on behalf of veterans' benefits, bonuses, and pensions. Its rehabilitation service fought for the claims of disabled veterans and through the assistance of local Legion posts, more than a million World War I veterans had found jobs during the depression.

The V.F.W., older than the Legion and formed from the remnants of the Spanish American War veterans organization, was similarly dominated by the World War I bonus marchers. The two major veterans organizations both vigorously ~~recruited~~ the ex-GIs. The V.F.W. drew GIs who sought "exclusivity" -- overseas service being a requirement for membership. The V.F.W. had also won popularity with enlisted men for its successful political support of terminal leave pay for enlisted men as well as officers.

The third major veterans organization, the Disabled American Veterans, had sprung up after World War I to cater to the needs of sick and injured servicemen and to lobby for pensions and medical benefits. By 1947, the D.A.V. had 134,523 members -- more than double its pre-war membership.[8]

Many new veterans groups also sprouted up after World War II. Several of the new groups out-did the Legion and the V.F.W. in emphasizing nationalism. The Nationalist Veterans of World War II, the Christian Veterans of America, and others demanded cash bonuses of up to $7,800.[9] Two of these groups survived: The American Veterans Committee ~~and~~ the American Veterans of World War II (AmVets), formed by veterans whose views were not represented by the major organizations.

The A.V.C. was formed by student clubs and intellectuals who espoused internationalist and liberal policies which were incompatible with Legion or V.F.W. "Americanism." The AVC called for such radical measures as desegregation of the military, support for the United Nations, and no special bonuses for veterans. Although its philosophy became more influential through the years, the AVC's membership gradually fell off from its postwar high of 75,000.[10]

The American Veterans of World War II originally drew GIs who simply wanted to belong to a fraternal organization run by and for their own age group. Its political stands, however, gradually expressed liberal positions, endorsing public housing and desegregation in the military. While its structure resembles that of the older organizations, AmVets' 125,000 members were described by Colliers in 1954 as representing a broader base than any of the newer groups.[11]

The sudden surge in Legion and V.F.W. membership which took place in 1946-7, together with the birth of numerous new veterans fraternities, is a phenomenon which remains unmatched in the Korean or Vietnam eras.

Legion membership figures show a continual decline from the 1946 peak of 3.4 million to a plateau of between 2.7 and 2.8 million which lasted throughout the '50's. After a low of 2.5 million in 1964, the addition of Vietnam War veterans has helped to make up for death losses and to gradually swell Legion membership back to the 2.7 million level. Although complete statistics are not available with regard to members' period of service, Legion and V.F.W. officials concur with the observation that Korean and Vietnam veterans have been a great deal slower to join the traditional veterans organizations than were World War II GIs. The Legion estimates that 12 to 14 percent of World War II veterans have joined the Legion and expects that as Vietnam veterans become settled into civilian careers they will join the Legion in similar numbers.[12]

Of their current total of 2.7 million, the Legion now claims 450,000 Vietnam war veterans, 440,000 Korean war veterans, 350,000 World War I veterans and 1,460,000 World War II veterans.[13]

A recent Louis Harris study reports that while 43 percent of all earlier veterans polled had belonged at some time to veterans organizations, only 19 percent of Vietnam Era veterans polled had joined such groups. Vietnam Era veterans, it has been noted, include many career servicemen who happened to be retiring at the time of the Vietnam conflict. The Harris study observed that "Apparently, to 81 percent of Vietnam veterans, joining service organizations might identify them with something their reception at home makes them want to forget.[14]

Quite the opposite seems to have been true for World War II veterans. Much psychological and social literature of the period, in fact, warns families and friends of ex-GIs that war veterans may need to spend much time down at the Legion Hall in the company of their fellow warriors in order to ease the psychological transition back to civilian life.[15] Popular journal articles asked such questions as, "How does an ace slow down to a civilian career?" The Legion and the V.F.W. and the many newer veterans organizations provided social and emotional outlets for the returning World War II "aces." Vietnam Era veterans, on the other hand, do not appear eager to recall war experiences or to identify themselves with the ambiguities of that war.

In addition to serving a social function for ex-GIs, the veterans groups also functioned very effectively in publicizing their needs and desires to the public and the government. Just as the dramatic membership leaps of the World War II period have not been equalled since, the dramatic and concerted lobbying campaigns of the veterans groups of that era have likewise not been duplicated in recent years.

The American Legion claims as one of its greatest accomplishments the passage of the "Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944." The very term "GI Bill of Rights" is reported to have come from the pen of the Legion's Public Relation's Director.[16] President Roosevelt's recommendations for postwar veterans benifits and those of the Armed Forces Committee on Post-war Educational Opportunities (the Osborne Committee) in July of 1943 were in fact pre-dated by the Legion's Convention of 1942 which adopted many resolutions which were later enacted into law.[17] Although the Legion's legislative officers helped write the bill which later became law, the V.F.W. claims that the Legion bill was "floundering hopelessly" before collaboration among the major veterans organizations was achieved.

The V.F.W. had been holding out for its philosophy under which all veterans would be given checks rather than specific services such as educational assistance. The legislation providing for World War II's "small bonuses" -- mustering out pay and terminal leave pay -- were the V.F.W.'s "babies" at least as much as the "GI Bill" was the progeny of the Legion, although both groups supported the legislation. Mustering out pay legislation, backed early by both the V.F.W. and the Legion, led the way through Congress for passage of the omnibus GI bill.

The Legion launched a massive publicity campaign. Over 400 radio spots were produced and distributed to local stations. Many carried direct appeals from wounded servicemen. More than 125 two-minute movies were shown in theaters across the Nation. At the request of local Legion posts, these public appeals to back the GI Bill were inserted by local theaters into their newsreels. News releases, stories, and editorials urging passage of the GI Bill flooded the Nations' press with the assistance of William Randolph Hearst and his chain of newspapers. Many papers added coupons which could be cut out by readers and sent to their Congressmen urging GI Bill support.

Hearst personnel were turned over to the Legion for assistance with publicity as well as lobbying. One of these men conducted a *daily* telephone poll of every Congressman asking where they stood on the Bill. A chart keeping score of the poll's results was kept up to date and daily meetings of the Legion's "Council of War" decided which states and which Congressmen were in need of attention. Telegrams went out to Legion posts and officials in the districts of "doubtful" legislators urging constituent pressure. With the help of this well-orchestrated campaign led by the veterans groups, the Bill reached the Senate floor with a total of 81 Senators listed as *co-sponsors*. Its passage was unanimous.[18]

The political activity of the major veterans' organizations during the Korean and "Cold War" periods was much less energetic, especially with respect to veterans' educational benefits. A review of Legion and VFW yearly legislative reports and national convention resolutions since the big GI Bill push of 1944 reveals interest in veterans' housing legislation (a subject not heard today), veterans' preference in government employment, in improving and enlarging eligibility for pensions, disability compensation and medical care, and in "national security" and "Americanism" issues, but a general lapse of interest in educational benefits (with the exception of benefits to children of disabled). Legion and V.F.W. support for the Korean GI Bill was passive rather than active. The bill is simply not mentioned in the Legion and V.F.W. legislative reports. No concern seems to have been given to "comparability of benefits" with respect to the World War II Bill. In 1956, the V.F.W. opposed the cut off of Korean War educational benefits, but the Legion was silent. In 1958, the V.F.W. supported a bill to extend educational benefits to post-1955 veterans and for the first time called for increases in educational assistance allowances to meet cost of living and cost of education increases. Again, the Legion was silent.

Inasmuch as Legion membership is restricted to "wartime" veterans, the Legion has never officially supported educational assistance to "peacetime" veterans. During the 1950's and early 1960's, the Legion's political energies were turned vigorously in other directions: Investigations of communist influence in the movie industry, opposing trade with communist countries, opposing the nuclear test ban, and opposing communist speakers at public colleges, for example. It was not until 1965 that the Legion again took an active position in favor of educational benefits for current veterans.[19] The "Cold War GI Bill" which passed in 1966 was the result of the leadership of Senator Yarborough and others, rather than the kind of public relations and lobbying effort on the part of veterans' groups which secured the passage of the original GI Bill. Only very recently have the old line veterans organizations begun to press for "comparability of benefits" with respect to those of the original GI Bill.[20]

Washington representatives of the major veterans groups are all now well in step and on record as asking for "comparable" educational benefit treatment for Vietnam Era veterans, but their major lobbying efforts are reserved for matters which are of more direct interest to the bulk of their constituents. Recently, pension bills, medical bills, and a national cemetary bill have received major attention in Legion publications. In 1968 the U.S. Veterans Advisory Commission, overwhelmingly made up of representatives of the major veterans organizations, presented 79 formal recommendations to the VA and to the Congress which dealt much more heavily with widows, orphans, and older veterans than with any increases in educational allowance benefits.[21]

In 1971 the Legion invested a great deal of money and effort in a public information campaign reminescent of 1944. In the effort to remind the public of the fate of U. S. Prisoners of War in Vietnam, television programs, radio programs, and a motion picture documentary were produced by the Legion and distributed throughout the country.[22] The movie shorts, and radio (TV) spots which aroused public awareness of the original GI Bill, and which recently called attention to the plight of American POWs, however, have yet to be employed to call attention to the problems of millions of returned Vietnam veterans or to encourage veteran utilization of benefits.

The Legion and V.F.W. conventions continue to pass resolutions on subjects ranging from school prayers to VA hospitals, but even on issues directly affecting veterans, the veterans organizations have little real political impact today. In recent campaigns to improve VA health care facilities, as in other matters, the leadership has come from individual Congressmen. A 1970 poll of the offices of 35 members of Congress by the National Journal found that "None of the offices reported any follow-up to testimoney or personal contact with representatives of the (Legion) legislative division."[23]

The Chairman of the Legion's 1944 "War Council" on the GI Bill of Rights (John Stelle) was known for his desk pounding "hard sell" on behalf of World War II veterans. More recent Legion lobbyists have preferred to maintain "low profiles" in dealing with Congress, seeing themselves as "political realists."

Another aspect of the representation of veterans interests currently provided by veterans groups is the advent of a new group of smaller veterans organizations spawned by the Vietnam Era. The politically and ethically controversial nature of the Vietnam Conflict gave rise to a number of organizations representing newer veterans who felt that the major ideologically conservative, veterans organizations did not and could not represent their views and interests. The largest of these are the Vietnam Veterans Against the War (VVAW) known for its vigorous political activity as well as its service to returning veterans, and the National Association of Concerned Veterans (NACVI), an association of 150 college and community veterans clubs, which takes no political positions other than lobbying on behalf of liberalized benefits.

NACVI, and other newer veterans groups, claim success in their efforts at "reaching" recent veterans who haven't taken advantage of their educational benefits. Although the volunteer "Post Service Officers" as well as the professional staffs of the major veterans organizations have been informing and assisting veterans since the World War II Era, they claim no great Vietnam Era outreach success. Some local posts have reportedly refused to accept VA outreach lists of educationally-disadvantaged Vietnam Era veterans. Some Legion and V.F.W. posts have been active in sponsoring "Job Fairs" and "Opportunity Fairs" for returning servicemen in their areas and the Legion has cooperated with the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges in educational outreach work. Yet the very nature and geographical location of major veterans organization posts makes it difficult for them to reach those Vietnam veterans most in need of assistance.

A recent demographic survey of readers of the American Legion Magazine, which is accepted by Legion officials as accurately representing their membership, shows that 3.7 percent of the subscribers were black and 1.3 percent "Spanish". It also revealed that only 10.0 percent of Legionnaires reside in metropolitan areas of over 500,000 people while 32.9 percent live in suburban counties and 39.7 percent live in nonmetropolitan areas.[24]

The Legion recognizes one of its problems to be a shrinkage in the total number of posts (a loss of 1,300 posts since 1947) highlighted by the decay of central city posts. Inasmuch as a significant number of the "disadvantaged" veterans who are not taking advantage of their educational benefits are central city black and Spanish-speaking veterans, Legion difficulty in reaching many recent veterans is understandable.

In general, the evidence available suggests that Vietnam veterans when compared with veterans of World War II seem to be at a distinct disadvantage in terms of the attention to their needs provided and generated by major veterans organizations.

Non-GI Bill Veterans Assistance Programs

A brief survey of governmental assistance programs other than GI Bill educational assistance provides some indication of how Congressional and public attention to the needs of veterans has varied since World War II.

Many benefits of a continuing nature such as pensions, medical benefits and service-connected disability compensation are structurally identical for all "war veterans." Vietnam Era veterans (serving since August 5, 1964) were declared "war veterans" by Public Law 90-77 on August 31, 1967. Disability payment schedules have varied over time, and specific provisions of law have altered certain allowances and benefits (e.g., the disability level at which a veteran's dependents receive an allowance was 60 percent for World War II, 50 percent for Vietnam Era). Except for increases in monthly payments and changes in eligibility requirements, the pension system has remained roughly the same since World War II. Medical care benefits at VA hospitals are comparable for the three eras, again with eligibility requirements easing. Federal employment preferences for veterans and veterans reemployment rights have remained intact.

Several significant federal assistance programs, however, were available to earlier veterans which are not available to Vietnam Era veterans. Two World War II programs were designed to ease the veteran's economic readjustment problems. Thousands of World War II and Korean War veterans received a "Mustering Out" payment as well as federal "readjustment allowances." World War II and Korean War veterans received $300 in mustering out pay if they served at least 60 days, including any service outside the U.S.; if they served wholly within the U.S. they received $200 and if they served less than 60 days they received $100. Vietnam veterans receive no such payments. In September 1946, 1.3 million World War II veterans were members of the "52-20 Club" -- that is, they were recipients of federal unemployment insurance payments of $20 per week (for a maximum of 52 weeks).[25] Under provisions of the GI Bill, Korean War veterans were also eligible for federal "readjustment allowances." Today, Vietnam veterans may qualify for state unemployment insurance which varies in eligibility and payments. The national focus and the special status and assistance on a national scale to World War II and Korean War veterans is missing for today's veterans.

Other discontinuities in federal programs can be found in insurance, loans, housing, and vocational rehabilitation eligibility. World War II and Korean War veterans were eligible for vocational rehabilitation benefits if they had any legally compensable disability at all. Vietnam veterans must be rated at 30 percent or more disabled in order to qualify. Vietnam veterans may negotiate VA home and farm loans, but they are not eligible for VA loans to enlarge or establish a business, as were earlier veterans. (Vietnam veterans have been recently urged to take advantage of Small Business Administration loans, but they receive no special consideration as veterans.) An unusually inexpensive life insurance program was, and continues to be, administered by the VA for veterans of World War II. With a few exceptions, this program is not available to veterans of Korea and Vietnam.[26]

Due to wartime limitations on the housing industry and the tremendous needs for low-cost housing following World War II, the federal government (followed by many state governments) embarked on massive housing programs, many of which were earmarked for veterans. The Federal Emergency Housing Program subsidized the construction of "low and moderate-cost" dwelling units to meet the needs of an estimated 3,025,000 families, 74 percent of were families of veterans. Veterans received preference in public housing projects, and in homesteading the lands newly irrigated by federal reclamation projects.[27] By way of contrast, the present Administration has suspended or cut-back on all federally supported housing projects -- adversely affecting those in need of housing.

The post-World War II federal commitment to help veterans attend college was not limited to the generosity of the educational benefits of the GI Bill. Federal Housing Expediter Wilson W. Wyatt stated in May 1946 that "Our major task is to remove obstacles standing in the way of full enrollment of veterans." This task, according to Wyatt, involved the release from service of college instructors, the provision of surplus equipment, books and supplies, as well as the provision of low-cost housing for student veterans.[28]

Federal housing for student veterans was provided in three forms: the conversion of existing federal facilities (Camp Shanks and the Sampson Naval Training Center in New York, for example), (beds, furnishings and equipment were provided at government expense); the conversion of existing public war housing projects into low-rent student housing, and the provision of surplus military housing which could be transported to and erected at college sites -- all at government expense under the Lanham Act. The Federal Public Housing Administration expected that by the end of 1946, more than 100,000 units of each type would be provided for student veterans and their families.[29]

In recent years, a number of federal programs have been designed to assist veterans' transition to civilian life through special job training and placement, and through special preparation for postsecondary education. Several of these programs are designed to assist the large number of "educationally disadvantaged" veterans separating from the Armed Services after Vietnam Era service. These programs include: Project Transition begun in 1968, the PREP program, tutorial assistance, and the VA Work-Study Program (see Chapter 9). New federal job training and placement programs give priority to veterans.

Office of Education

The OE's financial aid and service programs for the general college population date back to 1958 and the National Defense Education Act. Of special interest are those programs which could provide supplementary financial aid resources to veterans attending postsecondary institutions. These include:

- Basic Opportunity Grant Program -- providing grant assistance to those students who could not otherwise attend the institution of higher education.
- College-Work Study Program -- providing work opportunities to enrolled students.
- National Direct Student Loan Program -- providing long-term low-interest loans to students.
- Guaranteed Student Loan Program -- providing loan funds with interest subsidy from commercial sources to students but guaranteed by the Office of Education or a state agency.

Veterans, as students, have been eligible to participate in these programs, but as discussed in Chapter 4, veteran participation at the present is relatively small.

Two OE programs which are designed to specifically assist the veteran are the Veterans' Cost-of-Instruction Awards Program and the Special Veterans Talent Search/Upward Bound Program.

The Veterans' Cost-of-Instruction Awards to Institutions of Higher Education is a program providing grants to institutions of higher education that increase their enrollment of veterans by 10 percent. These institutions must insure that they will provide a full-time office of veterans affairs responsible for outreach, recruitment, special education programs, and counseling plus programs to prepare the educationally disadvantaged and carry out an active tutorial assistance program. The grants are of $300 for veterans receiving benefits under the GI Bill or Vocational Rehabilitation Training and an additional $150 for veterans who are educationally disadvantaged. Initial year funding was insufficient to provide full payment of grants, necessitating pro-ration at about a 17 percent level.

The Special Veterans Talent Search/Upward Bound Program is a combination of the Talent Search and Upward Bound programs specifically designed to meet the remedial and motivational needs of the unemployed or underemployed Vietnam Era veteran who does not have a high school diploma. The major elements of the program are outreach and recruitment, guidance and counseling, advice and assistance on financial aids, application filling, and tutorial and remedial assistance. Training sessions last 6 weeks to 3 months although a participant may continue in the program if he needs additional assistance. Approximately 40,000 veterans were served by some 67 programs during FY 1973. These programs are expected to terminate in June 1974 under Administration budgetary plans.

The Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) is administered cooperatively by the Office of Education and the Department of Labor and is discussed among the programs administered by the Department of Labor.

In addition to these programs, the OE has a veteran coordinator in each of its ten regional offices. It is the role of these coordinators to stimulate interest in the veteran among educational institutions and community groups. They act as contact and reference points although they do not individually counsel veterans. Responsibility to monitor the Cost-of-Instruction program has been assigned to them.

It should be noted that many of these programs are new and/or have only recently given priority or preferential treatment to veterans. Therefore, their significance or effectiveness may lie more in future effects on veteran participation.

National Institutes of Health

The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare administers the Military Experience Directed Into Health Careers (MEDIHC) and the MEDEX programs. MEDIHC began in 1970 and assists servicemen with health skills to pursue health careers through counseling, placement, and referral. MEDEX began in 1969 and trains veterans who were Medical Corpsmen to work as physician assistants. In addition, the National Institutes of Health provide financial assistance to students under the Health Professions Student Loan and Scholarship Programs and the Nursing Students Loan Program.

Department of Labor

Manpower Programs. The basic philosophy and goal of the Manpower programs is to "enable the disadvantaged and other groups facing special difficulties to overcome the problems separating them from the general affluence and well-being of American life."[30] To accomplish this the Department of Labor and its Manpower Administration have established a wide range of programs. Veterans of all periods of service are involved in many of these. Recently, the programs have become more accessible to Vietnam Era veterans. The annualization of income for the latest quarter has allowed veterans during the first months of return to civilian life to be officially classified as disadvantaged and thereby become eligible for a variety of programs. Under the 1970 amendments to the Veterans' Readjustment Benefits Act, a veteran can collect simultaneously the training allowances provided under the GI Bill and the Manpower Development and Training Act. Manpower programs, which have recently begun to give priority to Vietnam Era veterans and have set goals to increase veteran participation, are summarized below:

The Manpower Development and Training Act Institutional program provides occupational training for the unemployed or underemployed who would not obtain employment without such training. This training includes basic education, communication skills, occupational training, employability skills, etc. The program pays the educational cost for up to two years and provides the trainee with a subsistence allowance, transportation, and child care.

In the Jobs-Optional Program and MDTA On-the-Job Training opportunities are arranged with private agencies and organizations. Except for national contracts the OJT program ended in FY 1970. The JOBS-Optional Program (JOP) began in FY 1971 and provides "low support" OJT for those who require less intensive assistance than that given under institutional MDTA.

The Public Employment Program (PEP) was set up under the Emergency Employment Act of 1971 to provide subsidized public service jobs. As a temporary countercyclical tool, the program has only been funded for two years. Preference is given to Vietnam Era veterans. PEP has been a valuable source of employment for veterans, especially those working in veteran outreach and assistance programs. In FY 1972, 27 percent of all PEP job slots went to veterans.

The Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) began in 1967 and is designed to channel training and supportive services to people in urban slums and rural pockets of poverty with high unemployment rates. Contractual arrangements are usually made with Community Agencies to render these services.

The Public Service Careers (PSC) program provides on-the-job training and supportive services to the disadvantaged. "The object is to enable the disadvantaged to obtain entry-level jobs in Federal, State and local governments, in private nonprofit agencies and in agencies that receive Federal grants in aid..."[31] Trainees must be guaranteed employment upon successful completion of training. Under 10 percent of the total enrollment, or 1,800 slots went to Vietnam Era veterans in FY 1972.

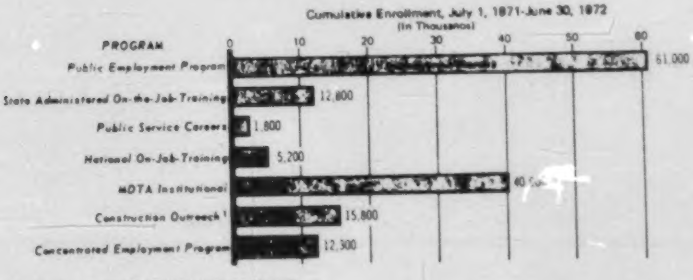
The Work Incentive Program (WIN) was established under the Social Security Act of 1967 to make it possible for welfare recipients to find productive employment. Participants receive a variety of manpower and supportive services.

Operation Mainstream provides work experience and training in rural areas to older adults. This applies to some older veterans.

The Construction Outreach Program combines apprenticeship Outreach and Journeyman Outreach into a program that conducts preapprenticeship and apprenticeship training through contracts with industry, labor and other organizations. The program is administered by the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training in the Department of Labor.

In total, the Manpower programs provided training for 89,000 Vietnam Era veterans and employment for at least another 61,000 in FY 1972. This is illustrated below:

ESTIMATED EMPLOYMENT OF VIETNAM-ERA VETERANS IN
WORK AND TRAINING PROGRAMS, JUNE 1972



1 Combines Apprenticeship Outreach and Journeyman Outreach.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Manpower, October 1972, page 25.

In addition, as Table 50 illustrates, veteran participation in MDTA and OJT has been consistently high since 1963, increasing as of FY 1971.

Table 50: VETERANS IN SELECTED MANPOWER PROGRAMS
(Percent Distribution)

	FY 1973[1]	FY 1972	FY 1971	FY 1970	FY 1969	FY 1968	FY 1967	FY 1966	FY 1965	FY 1964	FY 1963
MDTA	36.1	31.0	23.1	19.6	17.2	17.5	20.5	25.1	27.6	16.3	22.5
JOP	35.9	33.9	29.4	NA	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
OM	31.7	28.5	21.0	18.0	INA	INA	INA	INA	INA	NA	--
CEP	19.0	19.2	15.1	13.8	INA	INA	NA	--	--	--	--
WIN	INA	16.2	12.5	8.0	13.0	--	--	--	--	--	--
PEP	40.9	43.0	NA	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
OJT	32.8	35.4	26.8	22.4	22.7	24.9	27.1	32.5	31.6	31.5	29.2
PSC A & B	10.8	INA	INA	NA	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

[1] As of 3/31/73

INA - Information not available
NA - Not applicable

Source: Office of Financial and Management Information Systems, Veterans Administration, August 13, 1973.

This consistently high level of veteran participation makes it difficult to distinguish how significant the priority for veterans has been as distinct from the influx of returning servicemen in the population. Whatever the reason, it appears that there has been a significant effort to enroll these veterans since FY 1971. Almost 89,000 training slots represents a formidable achievement but it must be placed in the context of greater Federal involvement in training and manpower policy in general. A policy which did not exist during the periods following World War II and the Korean Conflict.

The Employment Service has been aiding veterans through job referral and placement, referral to training, job development, and vocational counseling since 1933. During this time, counseling has been provided to a great number of veterans. Employment Service counseling may include job orientation, vocational counseling and personal counseling. The geographical distribution of Employment Service offices has made their service easily accessible to veterans.

In summary, the efforts of the Department of Labor to aid veterans as a special group are currently greater than they were after World War II or Korea.

Office of Economic Opportunity

The Veterans Education and Training Action Committee (VETAC) of OEO has had two major roles in aiding veterans. The first has been to foster the split job concept, that is, employing two or three veterans to fill one full-time job, among government agencies. The second has been to fund demonstration projects to assist local governments in providing information and other active forms of assistance to returning veterans. These projects, called Veterans Education and Training Service (VETS), were established and administered by the National League of Cities -- U.S. Conference of Mayors and the National Urban Coalition, under support from OEO.

The programs assist veterans who would not otherwise take advantage of educational opportunities through peer recruitment and counseling. They provide a wide range of assistance to not only help the veteran readjust and enter school but to help the veteran follow through to his or her goal. The programs vary widely in character depending on their institutional bases which may be a City Manpower Commission, a College Consortium, a local Urban Coalition, or a City Human Resource Department.

This type of program appears to be a significant means of assisting veterans. The Veterans Education and Training Service concept has spread to 30 or 40 other communities. Funding for these programs have been, through such local resources as the Emergency Employment Act, Model Cities, Planned Variation, Community Action, etc.

The total effect that these programs will have on veterans is a question for the future.

These recent programs show increased federal attention to some of the special needs of today's veterans. (Similar programs were not available to World War II and Korean War veterans when they separated from service.) However, many of these programs are currently underbudgeted and/or are scheduled to be cut back under the Administration's FY 1974 Budget. The Emergency Employment Act's program of public employment, for example, which has given preference to veterans, is to be eliminated, causing many

Vietnam Era veterans to lose their present jobs. The veterans' "Cost-of-Instruction" program had its funds impounded on anti-inflation grounds and only released late in the fiscal year after court action was instituted.

In contrast to the earlier Federal programs, which were centrally administered and highly visible to the public, today's programs are highly diffused among many separate agencies without the means of overall coordination or control.

State Government Assistance

State governments too have paid considerable attention to the returning veterans over the years. Shortly after World War II, almost every state established Veterans Affairs Offices or Commissions which continue to help veterans in obtaining state and federal assistance of many kinds. Several states have recently added "outreach" programs to inform and advise veterans.

State laws giving special preferences and benefits to veterans have varied greatly among states and over time. Veterans presently, for example, may receive special housing preferences in fifteen states, and preferences in acquiring state land in four. War orphans and children of permanently disabled veterans receive special educational benefits in twenty-six states. Free tuition, or partial tuition payment, is available at state universities in eight states. State bonuses of up to $300 have been provided to war veterans by many states: World War II veterans received bonuses in twenty-five states; veterans of the Korean War were entitled to bonuses in twenty states; Vietnam Era veterans, however, are eligible for bonuses in only nine states.[32]

Chapter 8

PARTICIPATION RATES AS INDICATORS OF EFFECTIVENESS

A comparison of participation rates under the three GI Bills must be based on more information than the single statistic indicating the percentage of eligible veterans who use their educational benefits. To base a comparison on this criterion alone would assume that the educational and socio-economic structure of our nation has remained constant since 1945. This assumption is obviously incorrect. Additional factors such as the demographic composition of the Armed Forces, discharge rates, and eligibility requirements must be considered.

It should also be noted that a general participation index gives no sense of the kind of education veterans obtain through their benefits. While the Veterans Administration does now collect and report data on degree and vocational objectives, there is little data currently available on completion rates for veterans in such programs. Without this information it is difficult to determine the ultimate effectiveness of the GI Bill use. It should be noted that certain studies are currently in process which the VA believe will give such information.

A change in eligibility requirements while makes servicemen on active duty eligible for GI Bill benefits since June 1, 1966, makes an exact comparison of participation rates for the three programs impossible. The current participation rate which is generally cited by the VA includes active duty servicemen who were not eligible for benefits under the two previous programs.

Difficulties in Making Comparisons

The participation rate for veterans and servicemen computed as of June 1973, eighty-five months after the start of the program, is 47.2 percent

Table 51. COMPARISON OF PARTICIPATION RATES AT COMPARABLE POINTS IN TIME AFTER EACH PROGRAM BEGAN THREE GI BILLS

No. of Months After Start of Program	Date of Comparison for Vietnam Era	Service Period	Veteran Population	Persons Trained[1] Number	Persons Trained[1] Percent of Veteran Population	Vietnam Era Veterans Only Number	Vietnam Era Veterans Only Percent
41	Nov. 1969	WW-II	14,685,000	4,461,646	30.3%		
		Korea	4,471,000	1,364,858	30.5		
		Vietnam Era	3,646,000	964,674	26.5	849,910	23.3%
49	June 1970	WW-II	14,914,000	5,159,461	34.6		
		Korea	4,852,000	1,548,914	31.9		
		Vietnam Era	4,173,000	1,205,846	28.9	1,067,128	25.6
54	Nov. 1970	WW-II	15,524,000	6,036,938	37.3		
		Korea	5,053,000	1,773,738	35.1		
		Vietnam Era	4,573,000	1,478,225	32.3	1,321,056	28.9
59	April 1971	WW-II	15,143,000	6,023,239	39.8		
		Korea	5,122,000	1,877,306	36.7		
		Vietnam Era	4,979,000	1,732,607	34.8	1,551,090	31.2
61	June 1971	WW-II	15,182,331	6,144,849	41.5		
		Korea	5,171,000	1,908,365	36.9		
		Vietnam Era	5,138,000	1,807,989	35.2	1,616,069	31.5
66	Nov. 1971	WW-II	15,283,000	6,552,498	42.9		
		Korea	5,303,000	2,055,139	38.8		
		Vietnam Era	5,524,000	2,101,956	38.1	1,884,394	34.1
71	April 1972	WW-II	15,368,000	6,894,918	44.9		
		Korea	5,368,000	2,135,030	39.8		
		Vietnam Era	5,885,000	2,353,676	40.0	2,105,113	35.7
73	June 1972	WW-II	15,328,000	7,000,248	45.5		
		Korea	5,391,000	2,151,237	39.9		
		Vietnam Era	5,976,000	2,443,871	40.9	2,177,040	36.4
78	Nov. 1972	WW-II	15,430,000	7,249,628	47.0		
		Korea	5,440,000	2,241,725	41.2		
		Vietnam Era	6,220,000	2,718,406	43.7	2,416,945	38.9
83	April 1973	WW-II	15,440,000	7,461,471	48.3		
		Korea	5,443,000	2,280,412	41.9		
		Vietnam Era	6,474,000	2,985,967	46.1	2,647,9[illegible]	40.9
85	June 1973	WW-II	15,440,000	7,532,732	48.8		
		Korea	5,456,000	2,288,753	41.9		
		Vietnam Era	6,557,000	3,092,111	47.2	2,729,348	41.6

[1] Veterans and servicemen included in Vietnam figures.

Source: Compiled from data provided by the Office of Research and Statistics, DVB.

(see Table 51). This figure is based on 3,092,111 persons trained, of which 362,763 (11.7 percent) are servicemen. Some of these servicemen have been discharged from the service and now are veterans, but there are no data available to show the exact size of this group. The VA does have data indicating that 73,096 (20 percent) are still in training in the service. There are no data on the service status of the remaining 289,667 persons. However, there is evidence to suggest that a large portion of servicemen using the GI Bill are career soldiers.[1]

If a significant number of these trainees are career soldiers and are not entering the veteran population in the near future, their inclusion in the participation rate distorts that rate as an indicator of the useage of the GI Bill as a readjustment benefit. The participation rate for veterans only was 41.6 percent as of June 1973 compared to 47.2 percent for veterans and servicemen. Since the base on which the participation rate is computed is the veteran population, servicemen who have used the GI Bill and are still in service are not included in the base. Thus, the resulting participation rate is inflated. If the servicemen's participation rate were computed on the basis of servicemen trained as compared to eligible servicemen, the rate would be very low.

A compromise solution which counts one half of the 289,000 in-service trainees as veterans produces a participation rate of 43.8 percent. There is no precise solution to the problem of developing an accurate participation rate. The 47.2 percent figure which includes servicemen is undoubtedly too high. The 41.6 percent figure which excludes all servicemen is undoubtedly too low. The 43.8 percent figure may be the best indicator of the use of educational assistance by veterans of the Vietnam era.

Changes in the Veteran Population

As indicated earlier in the report in Chapter 5, the Vietnam and Korean veteran is younger than the World War II veteran. Thus, a greater proportion of Korean and Vietnam Conflict veterans entered the service at an age when people tend to be pursuing their education than was the case in World War II. 78.3 percent of Vietnam Era veterans and 83.4 percent of Korean Conflict veterans were under 30 at time of separation as compared 61.2 percent of World War II veterans who were under 30. Therefore it is more likely that the Korean or Vietnam Conflict veteran had his educational plans interrupted by service in the Armed Forces. This is even more true of the educationally disadvantaged who tends to be younger. According to a recent Veterans Administration study, nearly a third (31.9 percent) of veterans who had not finished high school dropped out to enter the Armed Forces.[2] While many of these young educationally disadvantaged may not have continued their education even if they had not entered the service, their need for education and training after discharge is acute.

In part because of their younger age Korean and Vietnam Era veterans have fewer dependents than veterans of World War II. Only 38 percent of World War II veterans had no dependents as compared to 45 percent for Korean veterans and 48 percent for Vietnam veterans.[3]

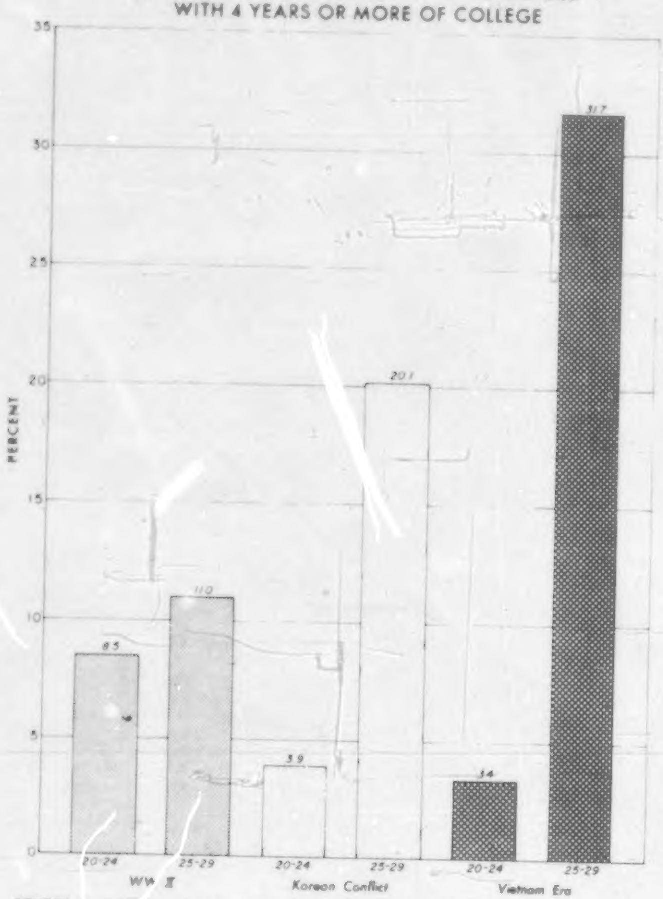
Educational Levels

Analysis of educational levels of veterans and participation in GI Bill programs has consistently shown that the higher the educational level of a veteran at the time of separation from the service, the more likely a veteran is to use his educational benefits (see Figures 12 and 13). Since the educational level of veterans as a group has increased steadily from 1945 to the present as indicated earlier in Chapter 5, one might expect the participation rate to be higher today than it was after World War II. This, however, has not yet occurred. Conversely, one may argue that since veterans today have a much higher educational level at time of separation, they have less need for post-service education. Figure 11 illustrates the dramatic increase in college graduates among 25-29 year-old veterans. There has been a 20 percent increase in the percentage of veterans in this age group with four or more years of college. Veterans with four or more years of college participate at a higher rate than those veterans with only four years of high school. Thus, these highly educated veterans actually contribute to increasing the overall participation rate rather than decreasing it. This again points up the fact that those groups which could benefit most from participation in post-service education participate the least (see Figures 12 & 13).

The educational level of the Nation has increased dramatically since World War II. In 1945, 30.8 percent of high school graduates entered college; in 1970, 61.8 percent of high school graduates enrolled in college (see Figure 14). While veterans use of the GI Bill for college study does not comprise the total amount of college education veterans receive, the trend shown in Figure 14 indicates that veterans use of the GI Bill for college education is not keeping pace with the increasing enrollment in higher education by the general population. A further indicator of the increase in the importance of education in our society is the rise in the ratio of resident degree-credit enrollments to the total population of the 18-24 year age group. Between 1945-46 and 1968-69 this index increased by 20 percent while the participation rate for veterans in college increased by only 10 percent (see Figure 15).[4]

FIGURE 11

PERCENTAGE OF VETERANS 20-29 YEARS OLD WITH 4 YEARS OR MORE OF COLLEGE

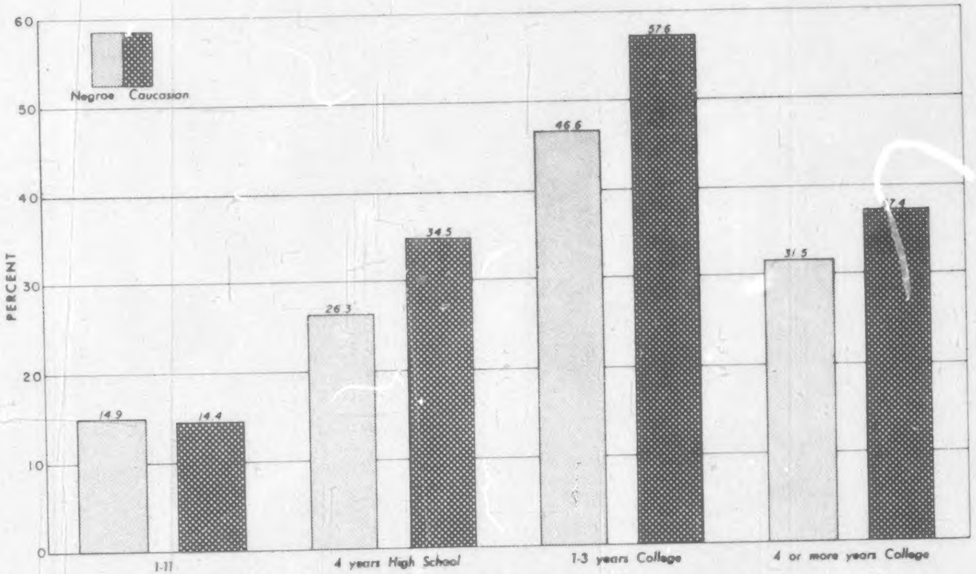


SOURCE: *Data on Vietnam Era Veterans*, 1972 Veterans Administration.

FIGURE 12

PARTICIPATION RATES BY PRIOR EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND RACE

(1968-1970)

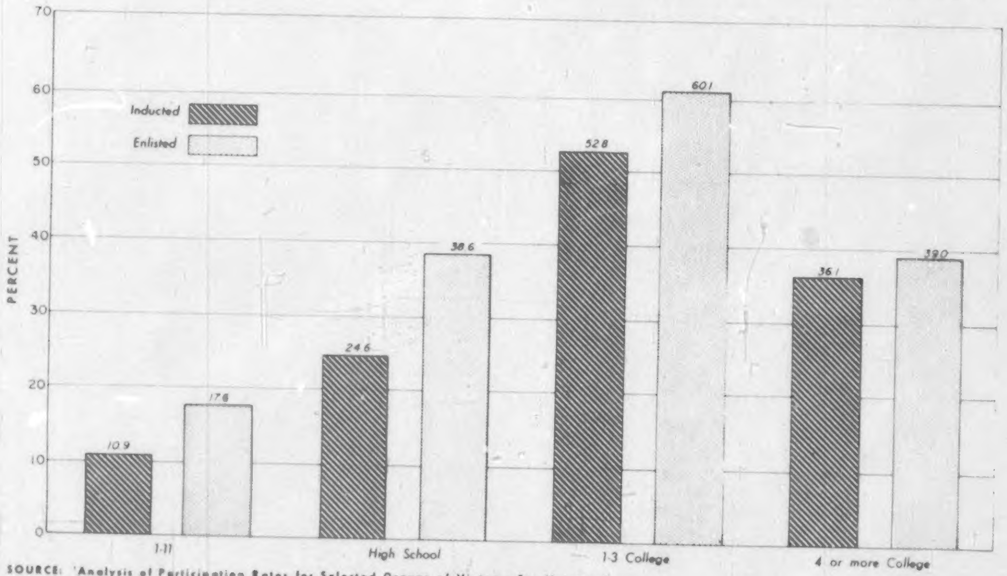


SOURCE: "Analysis of Participation Rates for Selected Groups of Vietnam Era Veterans"
Program Planning and Budgeting Service. Veterans Administration Dec.8,1971

NOTE: Based on persons separated 1968-70 and training experience through June, 1972.

FIGURE 13

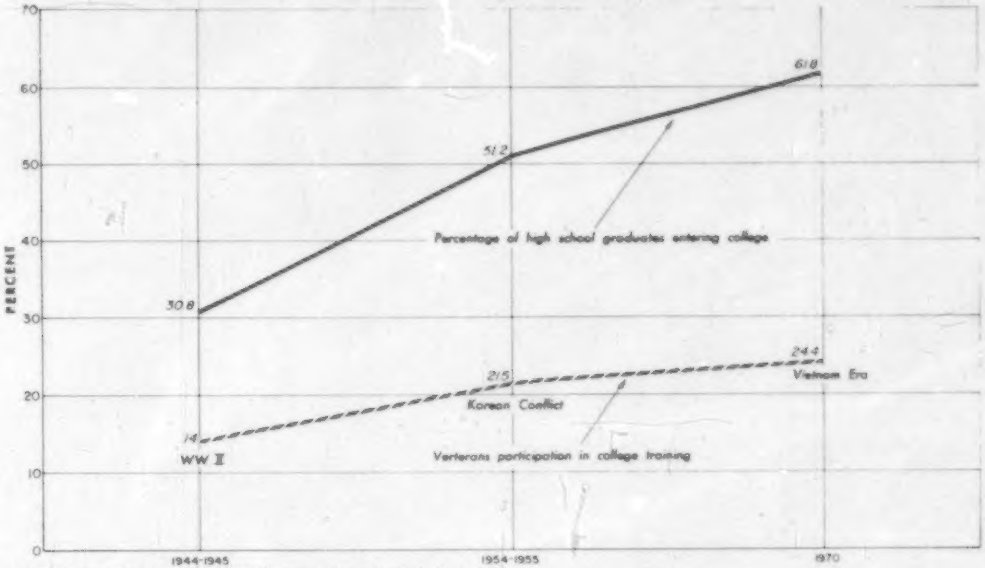
PARTICIPATION RATES BY PRIOR EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND INDUCTION STATUS (1968-1970)



SOURCE: 'Analysis of Participation Rates for Selected Groups of Vietnam Era Veterans' Program Planning and Budgeting Service Veterans Administration Dec.8, 1971.

FIGURE 14

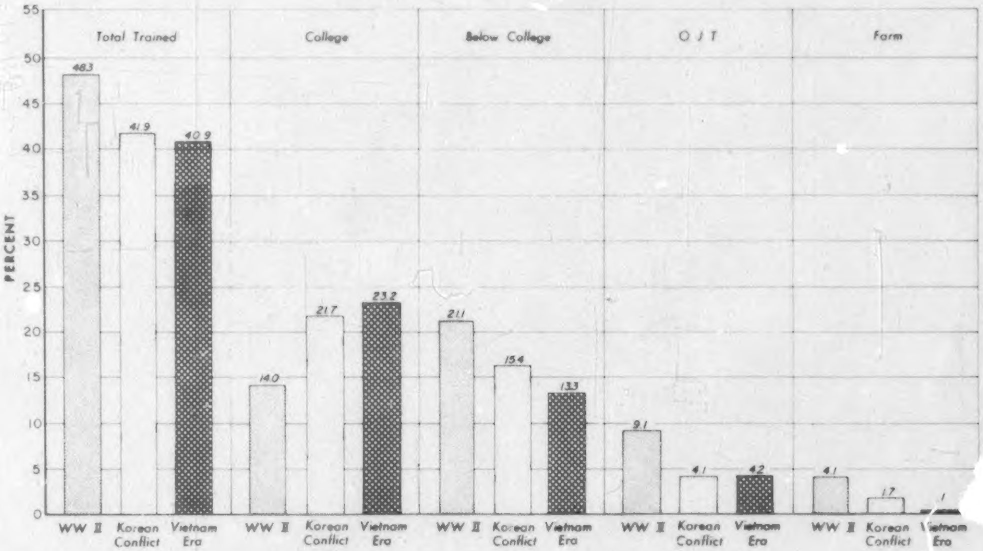
VETERANS USE OF G.I. BILL FOR COLLEGE EDUCATION AND GENERAL ENROLLMENT IN COLLEGE



SOURCE: Compiled from Digest of Education Statistics 1971, National Center for Educational Statistics Table 10, p.9. and IB 24-73-3 April, 1973 Veterans Administration.

FIGURE 15

COMPARISON OF PARTICIPATION RATES
AFTER FIRST 83 MONTHS OF PROGRAM BY TYPE OF TRAINING*



SOURCE: Compiled from "Information Bulletin" IB 24-73-3, DVB
*Rates for Vietnam Era computed for veterans only

Figure 16 points out the change in veteran enrollment as a percentage of total college enrollment. Part of the decline in the ratio of veterans to total students can be attributed to the increase of female enrollment from 29 percent in 1947 to 35 percent in 1956 and 42 percent in 1971.[5] Nevertheless, the major reason for this decline has been the smaller number of discharges following the Korean and Vietnam conflicts.

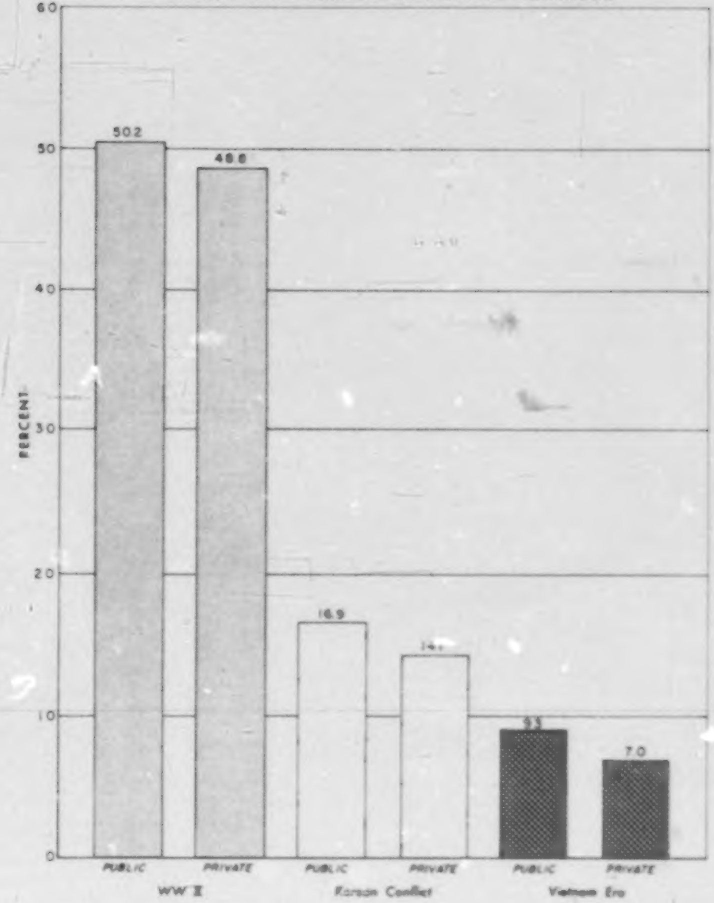
Varying Patterns of Release from Service

The manner in which veterans were discharged during the three periods also affects this ratio. Ten million World War II servicemen were discharged during one year, Fiscal 1946 (see Table 51). This was a tremendous number of veterans to absorb back into civilian life. This contrasts to the slower steady rate of discharge for Korean Conflict and Vietnam Era veterans. The sudden flood of veterans into the civilian population after World War II may have caused them to enter training sooner after their discharge due to the inability of the post-war economy to provide them with jobs.

Two years after the enactment of the World War II GI Bill, 87.7 percent of World War II veterans had been discharged. The comparable figure for Korean Conflict veterans was 53.5 percent, and for Vietnam Era veterans it was 35.5 percent.[6] This change in discharge rate undoubtedly contributed to the lower participation rate during the early years of the current G. I. Bill. However, today, seven years after the enactment of the present GI Bill, the average time since separation for Vietnam Era veterans is 4 years, at a point when the participation rate for veterans and servicemen is 47.2 percent. It should be remembered that approximately 1.0 million had been separated up to two years prior to any benefits becoming available. In 1950 when the participation rate for World War II veterans was 47.0 percent, the average time since separation was 3.8 years.[7] Therefore,

FIGURE 16

PERCENTAGE OF VETERAN ENROLLMENT OF TOTAL STUDENTS IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE COLLEGES



Source: Educational Benefits Available for Returning Vietnam Era Veterans Hearings before the Senate Veterans Affairs Committee March 23, 1973, p. 565.

Table 52: ESTIMATED NET SEPARATIONS TO CIVIL LIFE FROM THE ARMED FORCES FY 1945-1973

(In thousands)

Fiscal Year	Net Separations	Fiscal Year	Net Separations
1945	874	1960	480
1946	10,239	1961	449
1947	1,713	1962	444
1948	594	1963	555
1949	315	1964	566
1950	254	1965	495
1951	240	1966	507
1952	675	1967	533
1953	1,098	1968	745
1954	946	1969	940
1955	1,098	1970	1,012
1956	723	1971	975
1957	586	1972	850
1958	643	1973	604 a/
1959	506		

a/ Preliminary.

Source: Reports and Statistics Service, Veterans Administration participation rates for Vietnam Era veterans cannot be expected to rise much higher if they follow the trends of previous eras (see Figure 17).

Comparison with Nonveterans

Figure 18 illustrates the gap between veterans' and general enrollment in college today. The veterans' figures as indicated on the chart, refer to only first-term Army veterans. However, this does not distort the picture significantly since the Army has the smallest proportion of careerists and includes most inductees and short-term enlistees who might benefit most from the "readjustment" benefits of the GI Bill.

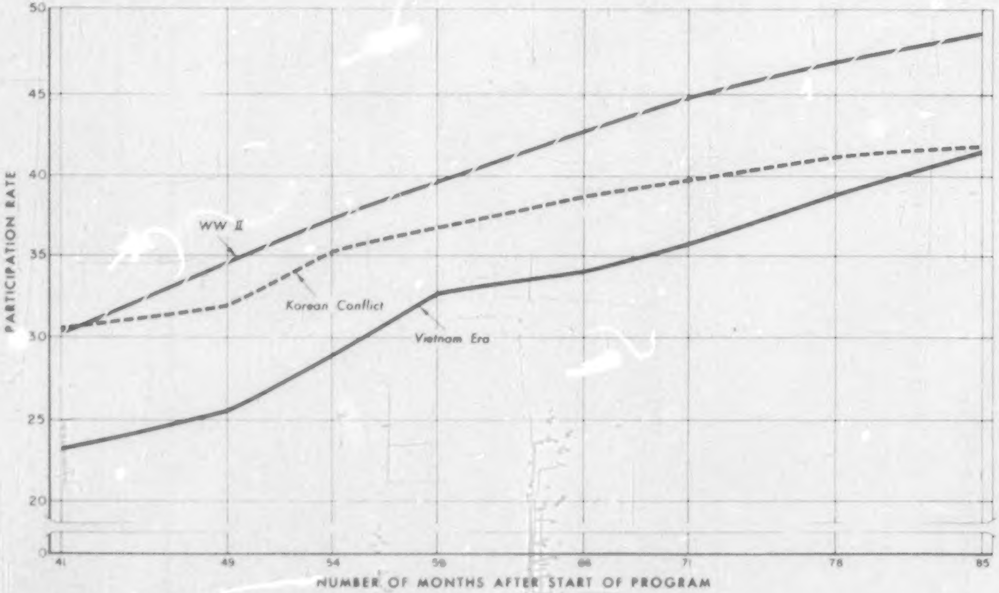
Correspondingly, there has been an increase in enrollments in vocational training between the late 1940's and the present.[8] This increase in vocational education combined with the increases in college education suggest that participation rates should be substantially higher in the present program than in the World War II veterans' education program.

Equality and Comparability of Participation Rates

An examination of the trends in education since 1945 combined with the changes in the veteran population over this period suggests that equality of overall participation rates for the three GI Bills does not assure comparability. Given the increase in enrollments in postsecondary education and the younger veteran of the Korean and Vietnam Conflicts, participation rates for the latter two GI Bills should have been higher than the rates for the World War II GI Bills if these veterans were to receive educational opportunities comparable to those of nonveterans. A participation rate substantially higher than the World War II rate of 48 percent is necessary to parallel the general increases in enrollment in postsecondary education.

FIGURE 17

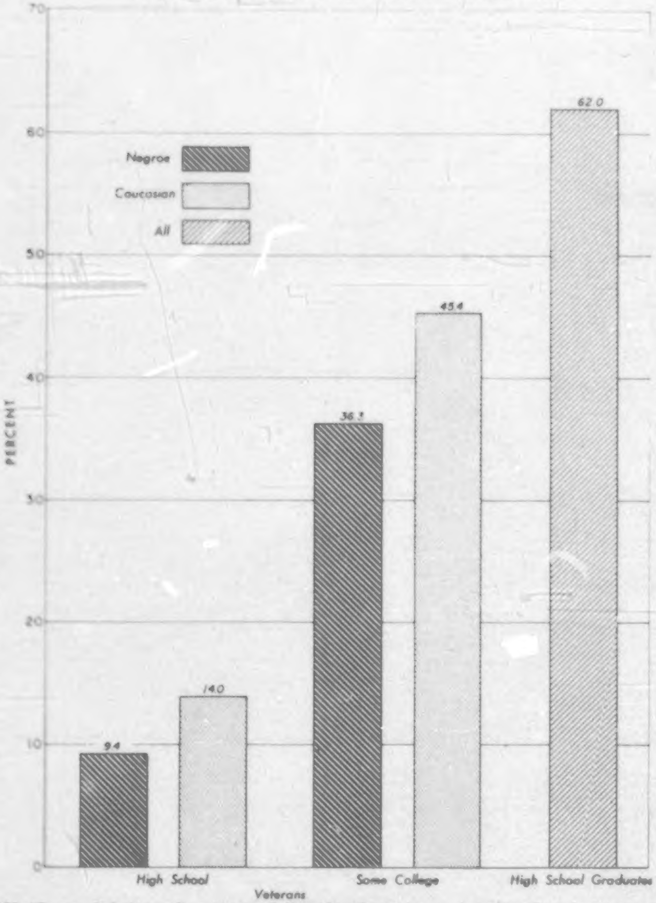
COMPARISON OF PARTICIPATION RATES AT COMPARABLE TIMES AFTER EACH PROGRAM BEGAN



SOURCE: Compiled from Data Provided by Office of Research and Statistics, DVB

FIGURE 18

1ST-TERM ARMY VETERANS ENROLLMENT IN COLLEGE BY RACE AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AT SEPARATION COMPARED TO NON-VETERAN HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES



SOURCE: "Factors Relating to Post-Service College Enrollment Among Army First-Term Separatees." Report No. MA 71-2 1971 Office of Secretary of Defense and Digest of Educational Statistics, 1971 National Center for Educational Statistics.

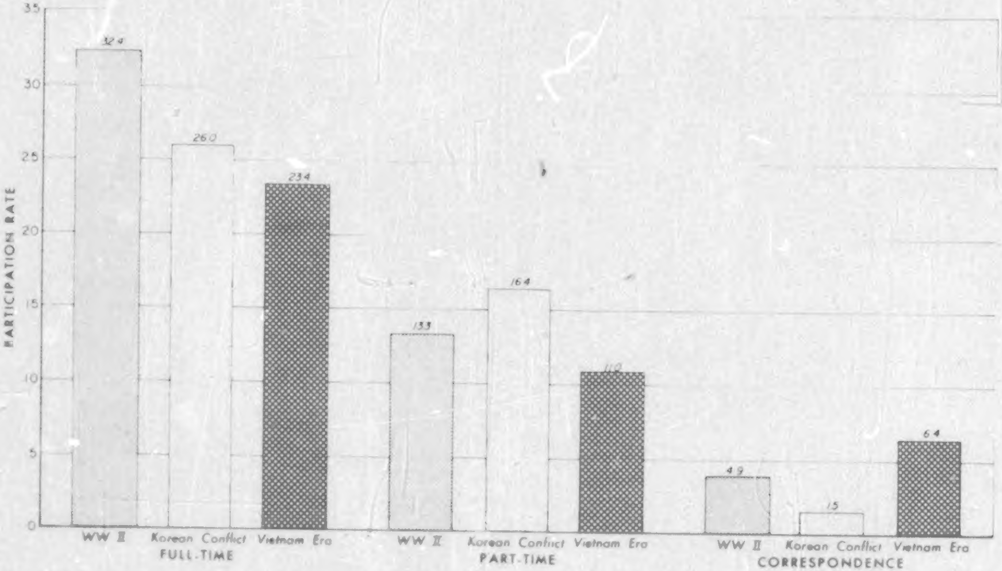
Full-Time vs. Part-Time Training

Some of the problems in comparability of participation rates can be reduced by confining the analysis to participation in full-time education and training programs. Few servicemen train full-time, and many of the abuses in the forties occurred in correspondence and vocational schools which are not included in full-time participation rates. Figure 19 illustrates the participation rates for the three GI Bills according to full-time, part-time, and correspondence instruction. The full-time participation rate for the World War II period was a full 9 percent higher than the rate for Vietnam Conflict veterans. Of those in training under the World War II GI Bill, 64 percent trained full-time as compared to 59 percent full-time trainees during the Korean GI Bill period, and 52 percent of Vietnam Era trainees.[9] This may be due, in part, to reduced usage in OJT and the current institutional farm program.

Since today's veteran is younger and has fewer dependents than veterans of World War II, one might expect the Vietnam Era veteran to participate more in full-time training; however, this is not the case. While part-time education has increased in popularity and acceptance since 1945, especially at the college level, this trend might be cited as a reason to increase part-time training rather than decrease full-time participation rates. Figure 19 shows a part-time rate for the Vietnam Era which is 2.3 percent lower than the World War II rate and 5.4 percent below the Korean Conflict period rate. A comparison of veterans and non-veterans in higher education today shows that veteran enrollments in full-time schooling are below non-veterans. 68 percent of all students attending institutions of higher learning are full-time students compared to 65 percent of veterans.[10]

FIGURE 19

PARTICIPATION RATES SHOWING
FULL-TIME, PART-TIME, AND CORRESPONDENCE TRAINING



SOURCE: Compiled from Information Bulletin 24-73-3 DVB, and Data Provided by Office of Research and Statistics, DVB

It may well be that costs, discussed in the succeeding section, are a factor in participation in full-time training.

Enrollment Trends in Public vs. Private Institutions

As illustrated in Figure 20, veterans have been somewhat less likely to attend private institutions of higher learnings than the general college-going population. However, the gap has widened from a 1 percent differential during the post-World War II period to 4 percent in the post-Korean Conflict period, and 7 percent during the present time. As the costs of private education have increased, veterans have been less able to afford enrollment in private institutions than have nonveterans.

The veteran of World War II who received a tuition payment of up to $500 could afford to attend private institutions in about equal proportions as nonveterans. In 1949 only 11.7 percent of all institutional courses cost more than $500 for an ordinary school year;[11] 83 percent of all universities and colleges charged less than $500 in 1949.[12] Today, the mean tuition for private four-year institutions is $1,900.[13] The $1,980 total benefit for the nine month school year for a single veteran today barely covers the average tuition at private institutions.

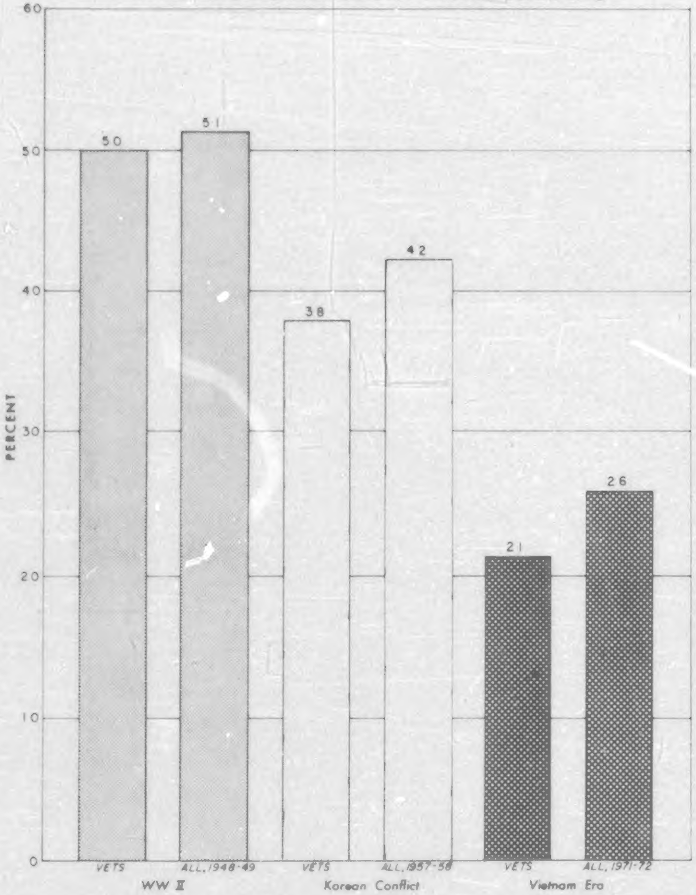
Geographic Differences

Participation rates for all veterans in training vary greatly by state, ranging from a low among the coterminous 48 states of 31.0 percent in Vermont to a high of 55.3 percent for New Mexico (see Table 52). An analysis of the availability of low cost, easily accessible institutions of higher learning in each state reveals a strong relationship between participation rates and the availability of such educational opportunities.

A high correlation (.83) was found between participation rates of

FIGURE 20

PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL STUDENTS ENROLLED IN PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING



SOURCE: Educational Benefits Available for Returning Vietnam Era, Veterans, Hearings before the Senate Veterans, Affairs' Committee March 23, 1972 p. 505.

Table 53: PARTICIPATION RATE FOR VIETNAM ERA VETERANS BY STATE AND TYPE OF TRAINING

Cumulative through April 1973

		Trainees 1/					
			Percent of Veteran Population				
State	Veteran Population	Number	Total	IHL	BCL	OJT	Corres. 2/
Total	6,476,000	2,985,967	46.1%	24.4%	17.5%	4.2%	6.4%
Alabama	93,000	41,780	44.9	21.9	19.4	3.6	4.5
Alaska	12,000	3,685	30.7	18.0	10.5	2.2	3.8
Arizona	64,000	34,457	53.8	34.2	13.8	5.8	7.3
Arkansas	53,000	21,600	40.8	19.[illegible]	16.3	4.6	5.5
California	756,000	384,600	50.9	37.0	10.6	3.3	4.7
Colorado	85,000	40,572	47.7	27.7	16.4	3.6	8.9
Connecticut	95,000	34,422	36.2	19.4	10.3	6.5	5.6
Delaware	20,000	6,511	32.6	18.9	9.6	4.1	6.0
District of Columbia	23,000	12,413	54.0	29.5	18.4	6.1	4.3
Florida	224,000	96,567	43.1	26.1	13.2	3.8	5.2
Georgia	152,000	61,653	40.6	17.3	19.6	3.7	5.0
Hawaii	29,000	13,952	48.1	28.5	12.2	7.4	5.7
Idaho	22,000	10,460	47.5	29.3	14.5	3.7	10.6
Illinois	321,000	125,243	39.0	21.6	12.8	4.6	7.1
Indiana	167,000	55,338	33.1	14.3	14.8	4.0	10.0
Iowa	83,000	31,949	38.5	19.2	15.9	3.4	8.4
Kansas	69,000	30,326	44.0	26.2	15.2	2.6	7.0
Kentucky	87,000	30,336	34.9	16.4	15.5	3.0	9.1
Louisiana	97,000	41,024	42.3	20.9	16.4	5.0	5.3
Maine	30,000	11,537	38.5	17.5	14.5	6.5	8.2
Maryland	139,000	50,374	36.2	21.1	11.0	4.1	5.5
Massachusetts	188,000	62,899	33.5	19.8	9.9	3.8	4.4
Michigan	266,000	109,591	41.2	23.0	13.5	4.7	8.2
Minnesota	133,000	57,735	43.4	21.2	16.5	5.7	6.0
Mississippi	46,000	17,325	37.7	21.1	12.5	4.1	4.5
Missouri	147,000	58,594	39.9	21.6	14.3	3.9	6.4
Montana	24,000	10,799	45.0	26.1	13.0	5.9	5.9
Nebraska	44,000	21,490	48.8	25.2	16.3	7.3	7.2
Nevada	20,000	6,800	34.0	17.6	13.5	2.9	7.3
New Hampshire	28,000	9,375	33.5	16.9	10.1	6.5	6.3
New Jersey	208,000	66,488	32.0	17.0	11.0	4.0	5.2
New Mexico	32,000	17,692	55.3	31.0	20.7	3.6	6.4
New York	478,000	180,478	37.8	21.3	10.5	6.0	5.2
North Carolina	142,000	59,792	42.1	21.9	13.5	6.7	5.2
North Dakota	15,000	9,579	63.9	36.6	20.7	6.6	8.1
Ohio	336,000	114,357	34.0	16.8	13.5	3.7	8.7
Oklahoma	91,000	39,702	43.6	26.3	14.5	2.8	5.1
Oregon	81,000	35,396	43.7	30.0	10.5	3.2	5.5
Pennsylvania	357,000	132,166	37.0	16.4	15.7	4.9	8.7
Rhode Island	34,000	12,342	36.3	20.1	12.3	3.9	5.6
South Carolina	80,000	33,132	41.4	18.4	17.8	5.2	5.5
South Dakota	15,000	8,208	54.7	28.7	21.1	4.9	11.2
Tennessee	119,000	49,307	41.4	20.4	16.9	4.1	7.0
Texas	355,000	149,139	42.0	25.7	13.8	2.5	6.4
Utah	40,000	17,223	43.1	29.0	11.8	2.3	8.9
Vermont	14,000	4,336	31.0	14.2	9.[illegible]	7.3	6.1
Virginia	158,000	54,760	34.7	19.4	10.7	4.6	6.2
Washington	142,000	67,331	47.4	28.9	15.2	3.3	8.1
West Virginia	46,000	18,428	40.1	18.5	15.7	5.9	8.5
Wisconsin	130,000	55,773	42.9	22.1	16.0	4.8	9.5
Wyoming	11,000	4,952	45.0	28.9	11.5	4.6	7.9
Outside U.S. Total 3/	75,000	24,001	32.0	20.3	10.4	1.3	2.0

1/ Total includes 337,974 servicemen trainees. Since these servicemen are not distributed proportionately by state they are omitted from state comparisons.

2/ Correspondence trainees are already counted in IHL or BCL, as appropriate.

3/ Area includes Puerto Rico, U.S. possessions and outlying areas, and foreign countries.

Source: Information Bulletin 24-73-3, DVB, April 1973, Appendix Table 13 states and the accessibility of "free-access" colleges as defined by Warren Willingham in his book Free-Access Higher Education. A free-access college is an institution which admits at least one-third of its freshmen from the bottom half of their high school class and charges no more than $400 in annual tuition fees.[14]

Undoubtedly, World War II participation rates for below-college-level training were inflated due to abuses by correspondence and vocational schools and enrollments in avocational courses. However, avocational courses were not permitted after June 30, 1948, when 34 percent of World War II trainees had not yet entered training. The participation rate for below-college-level training dropped only 5.7 percent from the World War II period to the Korean Conflict period when these abuses had been eliminated. Therefore, it appears that the World War II participation rates for below-college-level training were inflated no more than 3 or 4 percent and the overall participation rate would have been affected much less (see Table 54). Willingham has ranked each of the states according to the percentage of the population which lives within 45 minutes commuting time of these colleges. The correlation of .83 between the state rankings on participation rates and the percentage of the population within commuting distance of thes colleges suggests that veterans rely highly on this type of institution for acquiring their higher education. A great portion of the disparity in participation can be thus attributed to the availability of low cost public education.

An even higher correlation (.91) was found between state per capita expenditures on higher education and participation rates. This reinforces the finding of the association between participation rates and availability of "free-access schools". These two findings together provide strong

Table 54: COMPARISON OF PARTICIPATION RATES AFTER FIRST EIGHTY-THREE MONTHS OF EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE THREE GI BILLS

	World War II June 1944-April 1951	Korean Conflict September 1952-July 1959	Post-Korean June 1966-April 1973	Vietnam Era June 1966-April 1973
Veteran Population	15,440,000	5,443,000	9,583,000	6,476,000
Total Trained	7,451,971	2,280,412	3,633,243[1]	2,647,993[1]
Percent	48.3%	41.9%	37.9%	40.9%
College	(2,155,988)	1,153,448	1,985,235	1,505,248
Percent	(14.0%)	21.2%	20.7%	23.2%
Below College	(3,261,363)	815,075	1,323,270	868,347
Percent	(21.1%)	15.0%	13.8%	13.4%
On-Job	1,400,000	218,704	324,738	274,398
Percent	9.1%	4.0%	3.4%	4.2%
Farm	634,620	93,185	13,729[2]	6,683[2]
Percent	4.1%	1.7%	0.1%	0.1%

[1] Veterans only

[2] Cooperative farm

Source: Compiled from Appendix Tables 7 and 19, Information Bulletin 24-73-3, April 1, 1973, DVB evidence that veterans living in states that do not provide low cost, easily accessible college education participate in the GI Bill less because they cannot meet the costs of education in their states. This is further reinforced by the fact that interstate migration of college students is declining rather than rising.

In the fall of 1968, 83 percent of students attended college in their home state.[15] Earlier surveys between 1931 and 1963 have shown a consistent pattern of 80 to 81 percent of students studyin[illegible] their own state.[16] This decrease in mobility may be attributed in part to the fact that many public institutions have recently raised the fees they charge out-of-state residents. Thus, the veteran who lives in a state which does not provide low cost public college education cannot afford to attend an out-of-state school which charges high tuition for non-residents.

Enrollment in Community and Junior Colleges

As suggested by the correlation between participation rates and the availability of "free-access" institutions of higher learning, veterans are highly dependent on community and junior colleges for their college education. Among all Vietnam Era veterans enrolled in institutions of higher learning, 41 percent are attending two year institutions as compared to 28 percent of non-veterans enrolled in college in 1972.[17]

The increasing costs of higher education today have drawn many students to lower cost community and junior college. However, apparently due to the veterans greater financial need, he has relied on these institutions for his education to a much greater extent than the general college-going population.

Very little attention has been given to women veterans' use of their GI Bill benefits, because they comprise a very small segment of the total veteran population. Data based on samples of the entire veteran population do not provide statistically significant findings for women because there are so few of them. The following table provides the best available estimates for women veterans' use of the three GI Bills.

Table 55: COMPARISON OF WOMEN VETERANS' PARTICIPATION

	WW II	Korean Conflict	Vietnam Era*
Total Women Vets	332,000	80,000	91,000
Trainees	132,000	20,300	24,400
Participation Rate	39.8%	25.3%	26.8%

*Cumulative to April, 1973

Source: Compiled from estimated figures provided by the Office of Research and Statistics, and Reports and Statistic Service, DVB

Participation rates for women veterans have always been lower than those for men. Although women in general have increased their use of post-secondary education, women veterans have not kept pace with this increase."

A recent survey of veterans who had been back in civilian life for 7 to 14 months during the period April 71 through June 1972 found that women veterans in the survey participated much less than male veterans.[18] The participation rate for women was 17.4 percent compared to 30.2 percent for males. However, an earlier study of the same type found women veterans participating at a higher rate than men -- 36.1 percent compared to 32.7 percent.[19] Another survey group within this study found women participating less than men. This survey group produced rates of 24.6 percent for men and 15.3 percent for women. These differences may be due to the fact that women may tend to use their educational benefits at a later time after separation. More data are needed before any firm conclusions can be reached.

Chapter 9

NON-DEGREE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

Comparability and adequacy of benefits for the veteran pursuing an education at an institution of higher learning have already been discussed. This chapter discusses educational assistance in non-degree programs as well as remedial and other new programs made available to Vietnam Era veterans.

DIFFERENTIAL TREATMENT OF VOCATIONAL/TECHNICAL TRAINING

In the immediate postwar years, Congress and the Veterans Administration were confronted with an unprecedented number of institutions and students using their entitlement for education and training in programs below the college level. On October 31, 1949, there were 800,000 veterans enrolled in approved institutions below the college level, 7,423 (16 percent) of which had been established after June 22, 1944.[1] As a response to abuses by profit-making institutions, it was necessary to clarify and define existing laws and add legislation to respond to these students and their educational situation.

Today, 23 years later, several of the policies designed to respond to this specific educational situation are still in effect. As a result, current policies frequently constitute differential treatment of students pursuing college degrees and students involved in other forms of postsecondary educational programs. Credit hour vs. clock hour policies, change of course requirements, certification of attendance requirements and "IHL" vs. "BCL" terminology are some of the policy areas in which the differential treatment can be most clearly seen.

Clock Hour vs. Credit Hour Policy

P.L. 346 provided for the Administrator to pay to the institution for each person enrolled in a full-time or part-time course of education or training the customary cost of tuition, fees, books, supplies and equipment, not to exceed $500. However, the law did not define what a "full-time course" was; it was up to the Administrator to define this and issue regulations to that effect.

> "A full time course in collegiate institutions which uses a standard unit of credit...is defined as a minimum of twelve standard semester hours of credit for a semester or their equivalent... A full-time course in all other schools, including high schools, is defined as 25 or more clock hours of required attendance per week."[2]

P.L. 610, approved in 1950, incorporated this definition and expanded it to define an institutional trade or technical course which

> "...offered on a clock-hour basis below the college level involving shop practice as an integral part thereof, shall be considered a full time course when a minimum of 30 hours per week of attendance is required..."[3]

Today, in Title 38, U.S. Code, these same definitions are still in effect, although a 14 hour credit rule may be defined as a full-time course if there is no 12 hour credit rule within the institution as its own definition of a full-time course.[4] There are three distinct categories here:

1. An institutional undergraduate course
2. A trade or technical course where shop practice is involved
3. An institutional non-degree course in which theoretical classroom instruction predominates.

Each category warrants separate discussion to fully explain the different policies that students face in each situation.

An Institutional Undergraduate Course. When a veteran enrolls in a college or university in a degree-granting program, he must take the minimum of 12 semester hours of credit per week. This figure is based on the assumption that for every hour in class, 2 hours of study are required outside of class, or that 36 hours (minimum) will be spent on schoolwork a week.[5]

A Trade or Technical Course Where Shop Practice is Involved. This usually refers to courses which lead to diplomas or certificates, but not degrees. These courses today are offered at trade or vocational schools, as well as community and/or junior colleges. Thirty hours of class are required, or 30 "clock-hours." This concept of vocational education is derived from the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, which referred to a course in which the student spent 30 hours per week in the same shop with the same instructor.[6] However, this situation has changed, most noticeably in community colleges. For example, according to testimony presented to a Congressional committee in 1973

> "...in North Carolina, an ordinary full-time load for non-veterans in vocational courses leading to a certificate consists of 15 clock-hours a week in "hands on" shop training equated by the institution to 5 credit hours and an additional 12 contact hours in academic classes on campus for which extensive preparation is ordinarily required...
>
> Under the present system of measurement, therefore, the average student veteran in North Carolina would be enrolled in 12 credit hours/contact hours of academic work, (requiring 24 hours of classroom preparation) plus an additional 15 contact hours of shop courses -- a grand total of approximately 51 hours spent in the pursuit of his education -- and he would still be considered lacking three contact hours by the VA to be considered a full-time student."[7]

Obviously, the student pursuing a vocational education must spend many more hours in pursuit of his education than a student in a degree-granting program, while this is further increased for the veteran, if he wants to receive his full monthly allowance.

Technical Courses. This type of course leads to a certificate or a diploma, and requires 25 hours of classroom attendance per week.[8] While it is true that many technical programs are taught at schools designed specifically for that purpose, which may find it acceptable to count courses by clock hours, other courses are taught at community and junior colleges and this is the same type of situation faced by the vocational students. They also take academic courses, yet are required to use the clock hour system of measurement.[9]

Policies pertaining to an educational situation of 23 years ago are still in effect today, even though education, whether leading to a degree or vocational/technical education, has undergone tremendous changes. However, this difference in credit hour-clock hour policies, enabling students who are pursuing degree-granting programs to spend less time in class, also enables them to pursue part-time jobs. Students following certificate programs must spend more hours in class and in classroom preparation and thus have less time to seek part-time jobs.[10]

Attendance Procedures

The World War II bill did not put into law any attendance requirements; this led to a situation where veterans could enroll in a course, and receive benefits, while not attending class. A 1950 Report from the Administrator of Veterans' Affairs states:

> "There is, at the present time, no adequate control of veterans' attendance at educational institutions. Many schools have no standard attendance or absence policy, and it is not, therefore, possible to accept or enforce even the policy of the institution."[11]

This situation was remedied under the Korean Conflict legislation. An attendance procedure was initiated where:

> "No education and training allowance shall be paid to an eligible veteran for any period until the Administrator shall have received from an eligible veteran
>
> a) in the case of an eligible veteran enrolled in an institutional course which leads to a standard college degree or a course of institutional on-farm training, a certification that he was actually enrolled in and pursuing the course as approved by the Administrator, or
>
> b) in the case of an eligible veteran enrolled in an institutional course which does not lead to a standard college degree or a course of apprentice or other training on the job, a certification as to actual attendance during such period..."[12]

Here, a certification was required from students every month; students pursuing standard college degree courses, certified that they were still enrolled, while from other students an actual certification of attendance was required, signed by the students and verified by the educational institution.[13]

The 1966 Veterans' Benefits legislation followed this same policy. A veteran enrolled in a course which did not lead to a college degree had to certify his attendance (actually, the number of absences was to be counted). But this policy changed to a

> "...policy which permits monthly payment to be made to students enrolled in Institutions of Higher Learning (IHL) on a regular recurring basis without a monthly Certificate of Attendance (C/A). Prior to May, 1967, monthly C/A's were required from all students receiving educational assistance allowances under the provision of PL 89-358 [June 1966]. Monthly payments were not made until C/A's had been received... *A re-reading of the law revealed that it did not require monthly C/A's in IHL cases, and the change was made accordingly*, though the old procedure is still in effect for below college level (BCL) students."[14] (Emphasis added)

VA Regulations, Section 14203, clearly state that "schools which have veterans or eligible persons enrolled in courses which lead to a standard college degree are not required to submit monthly certification for students enrolled in such courses." [15] The law and the Regulations which interpret the law clearly differentiate between veterans pursuing a college degree and other veterans. A veteran in a college-degree program certifies once a year or term as to his attendance and sends the form back to the VA. Veterans in non-degree-granting programs must fill out attendance cards once a month, certifying their absences; have the cards verified and signed by the registrar of the institution or person in charge of veterans' affairs, and then send the Certification of Attendance cards back to the VA.[16] It is certainly understandable why this policy was changed for veterans in degree-granting programs: most schools, particularly large universities, do not use attendance procedures in their classes and it creates undue hardship and unnecessary paperwork for the veteran, instructor, and college. With respect to this change, a VA Management Engineering Study was undertaken in 1970 to determine the causes of overpayments and it found:

> "IHL trainees created roughly 10 overpayments per 100, while BCL trainees created 6 per 100 ... the logical inference, therefore, must remain that the elimination of monthly C/A's for IHL trainees has been an important factor in increasing educational overpayments...
>
> Nonetheless, the change was and is desirable from a common sense, improved service and reduced workload point of view... The problem of educational overpayments...will not be solved by overcontrol. Much of what VA requires...in the realm of policing of attendance, choice of course...is out of step with the present day practice and thinking of students and educational institutions..." [17]

The Certification of Attendance policy imposes on all veterans who are not pursuing a college degree a requirement that assumes this is still a policy in noncollegiate settings, while this may not be true at all. Veterans pursuing a certificate or diploma and attending colleges or institutions must abide by regulations that are not imposed on other veterans attending the same institution.

Change of Course Policy

P.L. 346, the World War II GI Bill of Rights, provided that a veteran was entitled to a course of education and training of his choice; he could change a course of instruction for reasons that were satisfactory to the Administrator. Large numbers of course changes took place in 1947, but it was not until 1949 when more than half a million changes took place that this became a matter of concern.

Fiscal Year	Number of Changes
1945	500
1946	26,000
1947	247,000
1948	455,000
1949	546,000

Source: Bradley Commission, Staff Report IX (B), p. 66

As a result, Congress enacted P.L. 610 in 1950, amending the original law and defining the conditions under which a course could be disapproved as well as the policy on course changes.

Courses that were defined as avocational or recreational were disapproved. The Administrator was given authority to deny the change of course if he found that it was not in the same general field as the veteran's original educational or occupational objective and that the veteran had already made one change from one general field to another. He could also require guidance where a veteran had made one change from one general field to another.[18]

The Korean Conflict bill for veterans' benefits incorporated these provisions and added that eligible veterans (except those who had not made satisfactory progress) were entitled to one change of program. These provisions were enacted to prevent a veteran from taking courses primarily to collect educational benefits, and from frequent changes of educational objectives.[19]

Under the current GI Bill, an eligible veteran may make one optional program change; additional changes must be approved by the Administrator. In response to a question about counseling, a VA spokesman replied:

> "Counseling is provided on a required basis if a veteran requests re-entrance or a change of program after making unsatisfactory progress in his training program. Counseling is also required for a veteran's second or any subsequent change of program."[20]

These regulations require veterans to consult with vocational counselors before changes of program can be approved. However, how a change of program is defined differs for veterans whose objective is a college degree.

VA regulations require that the certification of enrollment must clearly specify the program objective.[21] A veteran whose stated objective is a "college degree" may change his major several times as long as the degree does not change. A change is counted only when there would be a loss in credits and if it requires an extension of time for completing a new program. Students not in degree-granting programs must state their "job objective," such as electrician; if they desire to go into another area, this would be considered a change of course. Even if a veteran chooses to go into another course closely connected with his first course (unless the first course is a prerequisite to or required for entrance into the second), then it is still a change of course.[22] Not only is the college veteran permitted to put "college degree" as his program objective, but he is then able to change programs, such as from Sociology to Political Science, without having to report this as a program change.

IHL vs. BCL Terminology

Throughout legislation and VA regulations, the terms BCL (Below College Level) and IHL (Institutions of Higher Learning) are used. These terms appear in the original GI Bill and have become standard usage with reference to educational level of benefits. The terms are inaccurate because they promote confusion with respect to students who are pursuing diploma or certificate programs within an "Institution of Higher Learning." "BCL" gives a negative connotation to any education or training that is not aimed at a college degree. It conforms to the American usage of "Higher Education" and deduces from this the somewhat pejorative term "BCL." A VA Regional Office Education liaison, when asked if he had ever received any complaints about this terminology, responded that he had once been approached during a regional meeting of schools in his area by a student who voiced his objection to the terminology used by the VA and felt that the term "Below College Level" was degrading and demeaning.[23] The terminology may be unimportant, but it is perhaps within this framework that policies that give preferential treatment to students in "Institutions of Higher Learning" have developed.

Effects of These Policies

One effect of these differential policies may be that veterans choose degree-granting programs rather than vocational or technical programs, even if their interest is in the latter form of education. One way to determine whether or not this has happened is to look at the number of veterans trained, and the types of training over the three GI Bill periods.

Comparisons of Veterans by Type of Training

	World War II		Korean Conflict		Vietnam Era	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
College	2,230,000	28.6	1,213,000	50.7	1,505,248	56.9
Below College*	3,480,000	44.6	1,573,849	36.0	861,664	32.6

* This figure includes flight training

Source: Information Bulletin 24-73-3, April 1973, DVB

This table clearly shows that throughout the three GI Bill periods, the percentage of veterans that went to college has steadily increased (almost doubled) while the percentage of veterans in "Below College" training has steadily decreased. These figures must be seen in the light of several factors:

1. There has been a steadily increasing student enrollment in vocational and technical education throughout the country. In 1945, enrollments in vocational education were 2,012,931 with a postsecondary vocational and trade school enrollment of 445,000. In 1972, the enrollment in vocational education is 11,602,144 with a postsecondary enrollment of 1,304,921 or 11.2 percent of the total.[24]

2. There has been an increased emphasis on vocational education through Federal legislation. With the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, money was made available to schools to "...prepare individual for gainful employment in occupations except those requiring 4 or more years of education."[25] In the 1968 Vocational Education Amendments further expanded the program with an emphasis on programs directed towards the socially and economically disadvantaged. Student loan programs were opened up to students in vocational programs, where this money had been available to students only for Higher Education before. For instance, the Guaranteed/Federally Insured Student Loan Program

> "...provides student with the opportunity to borrow money for higher education or vocational training in post-secondary schools that offer business, trade and technical or other vocational training."[26]

Other programs, such as the Basic Educational Opportunity Grant Program, the Direct Student Loan Program, and the College Work-Study Program are also available to vocational students.

3. The development of vocational training programs by the U.S. Office of Education and the Department of Labor, such as the Manpower Development and Training Act programs, and the Vocational, Occupational and Technical Education (VOTE) programs. (Discussed at length in Chapter 7.)

4. Labor Projections and Occupational Needs. Russell Flanders, Chief of the Division of Manpower and Occupational Outlook, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, predicts that "...80 percent or more of all jobs will require fewer than 4 years of college by 1980."[27] In other words, 20 percent or less of the jobs will require a college degree by 1980. Yet, over 50 percent of veterans in training are enrolled in colleges and universities, pursuing degrees, while slightly over 30 percent of veterans in training are in postsecondary educational programs not leading to a standard college degree.

Thus, at a time when there is increased emphasis through legislation, governmental programs and job needs on vocational and technical education and training, there is differential treatment accorded to veterans who wish to pursue vocational/technical education which might very well be keeping veterans away from vocational education. This is not to imply that fewer veterans should go to college or that the VA should try to influence personal decisions. It is rather to suggest that existing statutes and regulations make it less attractive for veterans to pursue a vocational/technical program of education.

Correspondence Training by Veterans -- Use and Abuses

Veteran training through correspondence study has been subject to several types of problems throughout the three Conflict periods. Some progress has been made in reducing abuses, but since veteran participation in this type of training has increased in recent years, the problems which remain call for careful scrutiny and effective safeguards.

This chapter does not attempt to evaluate the educational quality or social value of correspondence education in the United States. Its focus is limited to a consideration of the development of safeguards in the program, and problems which persist in the area of veteran training by correspondence.

Major Problems and Legislative Safeguards

The original GI Bill (P.L. 346) in 1944 made no specific reference to correspondence schools. The absence of express authorization by law apparently led to some confusion as to whether a correspondence school was considered as coming under the legal provision concerning "education and training institutions." On November 21, 1944 the Administrator rendered the VA position on the issue (Administrator's Decision No. 606). The essence of the decision was that a veteran could enroll and receive benefits for correspondence training only if the school was a residence school.[28]

While there is no explicit documentation on the point, it seems clear that there was an initial reluctance on the part of the VA to become involved in the correspondence area, especially in the absence of express congressional authorization of that particular type of training.

In 1945, Congress provided that a veteran could enroll in a correspondence course if the course had been approved by the State Approving Agency of the state in which the school's home office was situated. The relevant criteria for authorized veteran enrollment thereby changed from the school being residential to the course being approved. P.L. 268 provided that the maximum rate to be paid by the VA for any correspondence course was $500, that an enrolled veteran would be entitled to no subsistence allowance for correspondence course study, and that one-fourth of the time spent in pursuit of such a course would be charged against the veterans entitlement.

The Bradley Commission recounts the problems which emerged early in the World War II period:

> "...many State departments of education were not adequately staffed in 1944 to perform the regular functions assigned to them by State law, not to mention the new functions assigned to them by P.L. 346. Furthermore, standards for the approval of institutions and establishments varied widely in 1944 and in some States were practically nonexistent. While the need for general standards was recognized, legislation providing standards was not enacted until the problems had approached the scandal stage."[29]

Directly related to the absence of uniform standards, the lack of funds, and the inadequate performance of the State Approving Agencies, a major problem developed in the form of "fly-by-night" schools. "Almost overnight hundreds of new schools mushroomed into existence. Most of them were profit ventures exclusively."[30]

P.L. 346 permitted an eligible veteran to pursue any approved course without requiring a determination of a vocational objective. In the World War II period, veterans pursued types of courses which related to no apparent objective that was considered legitimate, such as personality development and bartending. Further, changes in course were common -- and widespread:

> "More than 1,300,000 changes of course prior to August 1, 1949; 82 percent of these involved a change in training facility. These changes involved...approximately 18 percent of all veterans who had entered training by that time..."[31]

In 1950, Congress passed a second major legislative package which had an impact on training by correspondence. The law, P.L. 610, was intended to solve the problems noted above by providing that the State Approving Agencies would be reimbursed for their work of inspecting and approving courses and schools, and by prohibiting the pursuit of avocational and recreational courses by veterans.

In 1952, the Korean GI Bill (P.L. 550) retained the provisions of earlier amendments and further provided that no course offered by a private proprietary school was authorized for veteran enrollment unless the school had been in existence for two years prior to approval and at least 15 percent of the enrollees were nonveterans. These provisions were intended to eliminate abuses by "fly-by-night" schools which had sprung up for the purpose of receiving federal funds through enrolling veterans.

The Vietnam GI Bill (P.L. 358) made no significant revision as to correspondence training by veterans, but by its terms, servicemen became eligible for correspondence training benefits for the first time.

The 1972 amendments, P.L. 540, contained a number of significant safeguards for the correspondence training area.

The "90 Percent Reimbursement" Rule. P.L. 540 provided that after December 31, 1972, correspondence enrollees were responsible for payment of 10 percent of the cost of their course. This change from the traditional "full cost payment" appears to have been intended to give the veteran "a financial stake" in his training, and to discourage "frivolous use of entitlement for correspondence courses." In addition,

> "...because the veteran's entitlement is (now) reduced by one month for each $220 paid to him by the VA, his aggregate entitlement is reduced when he pursues a correspondence course."[32]

Prior to the 1972 law, refund policies varied among correspondence schools. Some schools had "pro rata" policies, with refunds based on number or percent of lessons completed. But many schools employed a "time based" policy by which refunds were computed by time elapsed after enrollment, regardless of number of lessons completed.

Since the VA reimbursed a veteran enrolled in correspondence training only for lessons completed, veterans must invest their money in advance. The 1972 GAO study, concluded that veterans and servicemen who dropped out of correspondence courses incurred an average loss of $180, that veterans had to request a refund before getting it, and that 31 percent of veterans were not aware of this and did not know they would receive no reimbursement from the VA for uncompleted courses.[33]

Responding to these problems, the 1972 amendments provide that there must be a "prominent display" of the refund policy on the enrollment agreement, that refund policies must be pro rata, based on number of lessons completed rather than on time elapsed since enrollment.

> "The law provides that a contract to enroll in a home study course must be affirmed by the student more than 10 days from the date the contract was signed. No payments of educational assistance allowance will be authorized by the VA for lessions serviced by the school prior to the date of affirmation of such request."
>
> (Instruction to the veteran on "Application for Program of Education or Training")

This "10 day cooling off period" provided in the 1972 law is intended to guard the uninformed veteran against "high-pressure" sales tactics by correspondence schools. It was also intended to guard against potential abuses in the situation where schools require students to sign contracts specifying that the student will pay for the cost of the course at the time of enrollment or on an installment basis.

It is clear that, since the World War II period, there has been a progressive "tightening" of the law with regard to veteran training by correspondence. While progress has been made toward reducing abuses by legislative safeguards, some problems remain which warrant additional scrutiny by the VA.

Some Remaining Problems

The functioning of State Approving Agencies and their contractual relationship with the VA do not appear to provide for any systematic assurance of the educational quality of the correspondence courses.

Fraudulent and misleading advertising by correspondence schools remains a cause of concern, although the problem seems to be less flagrant and less common due to progressive legislation and action by the Federal Trade Commission.

Representatives of the National Home Study Council, a voluntary membership private accrediting agency, insist that, while this is the major abuse in the home study industry, it exists only with nonaccredited schools -- some of which still offer SAA-approved courses.

There is evidence that among private profit making home study schools in 1968, the mean percentage of budget expenditures for promotional effort -- advertising literature and sales representatives -- was 43 percent; while the mean percentage of budget expenditure for "instructional cost" -- course development, revision and servicing -- was only 22.8 percent.[34] This illustrates the emphasis on sophisticated sales techniques in many correspondence schools.

Participation

In terms of the total veteran population and veteran participation in all types of training under the GI Bills, training by correspondence has not been a major percentage significance.

Table 56: PERCENTAGE OF ELIGIBLE VETERANS WHO HAVE TRAINED BY CORRESPONDENCE

Period -	World War II	Korean	Vietnam
Percent-	4.9	1.5	6.4

Source: Compiled from material provided by the Office of Research and Statistics, DVB; and DVB Information Bulletin 24-73-3, April 1973

Table 57: VETERANS TRAINING BY CORRESPONDENCE AS PERCENT OF VETERANS IN ALL TYPES OF TRAINING

Period -	World War II	Korean	Post-Korean[1/]	Vietnam
Percent-	10	4	25.9	15.8

Source: Compiled from material provided by the Office of Research and Statistics, DVB; and DVB Information Bulletin 24-73-3, April 1973. [1/] Those who served between conflicts.

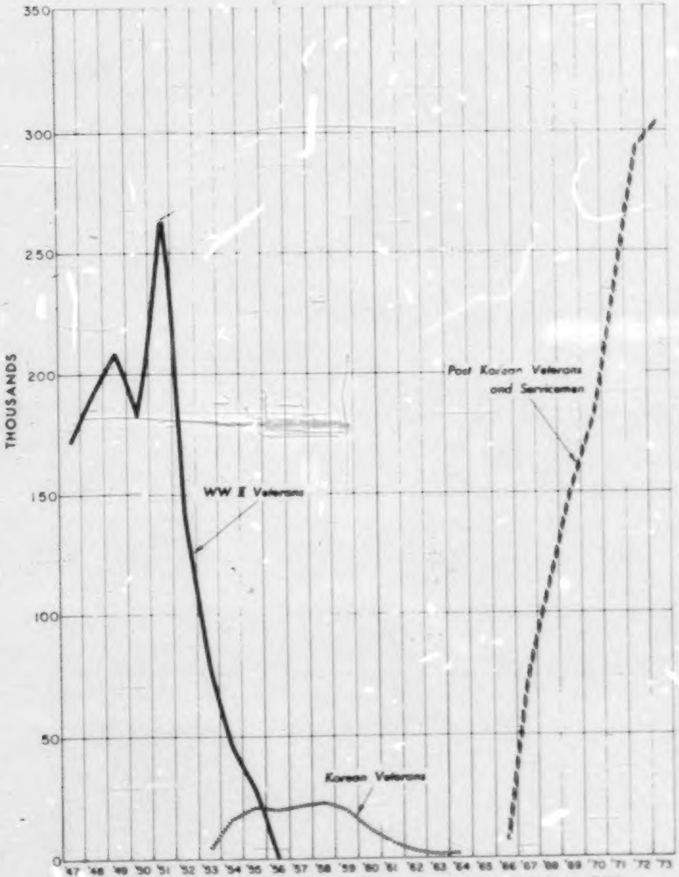
Veteran training by correspondence has always been concentrated in schools "below college level." A 1972 VA document, "Training by Correspondence Under the G.I. Bill: An In-Depth Analysis," concludes that 99 percent of correspondence training of veterans is in "BCL's."

Veteran participation in correspondence training has increased dramatically in the past few years under the Vietnam Era GI Bill (see Figure 2). The VA made this statement on August 1, 1973:

> "During the period July 1, 1968 to date $368,684,016 was spent on correspondence benefits with $300,366,734 for veterans and $68,317,262 for servicemen. There were 900,308 trainees (704,176 veterans and 196,132 servicemen)."

FIGURE 21

NUMBER OF VERTERANS IN TRAINING BY CORRESPONDENCE



SOURCE: Compiled from Material Provided by Office of Research and Statistics, DVB

It is of major importance that since the 1966 GI Bill (P.L. 358) servicemen have participated in correspondence training programs. This has increased the importance of the benefit program.

Further evidence of the scope of the program is illustrated in Table 58 which indicates that of the schools to which the VA paid annual reporting fees ($3 for each veteran enrolled at the school) the twelve schools with the most veterans enrolled, and to whom the largest fees were paid, were schools with the major part or all of their enrollments participating in correspondence courses. Each of the twelve was a private profit-seeking school.

Completion of Correspondence Courses

It appears that the VA does not, and has never, systematically collected data on the competion rates of veterans enrolled in correspondence training. And correspondence schools apparently do not differentiate veterans from nonveterans in their record keeping. Therefore, no comparison of completion rates over the three Conflict periods can be made. There is evidence, however, that veteran completion rates in this type of training have always been low.

> "Of the 286,000 veterans who were no longer in training as of October 31, 1949, and whose last training was by correspondence, only 30,600 or 10.7 percent had completed the correspondence course which they had elected."[35]

A study of the problem of low completion rates was conducted by the General Accounting Office, and its reporteof March, 1972 charged that:

> "...of the 212,000 veterans no longer receiving educational assistance payments at June 30, 1970, 52,000 completed their correspondence courses and 160,000 -- about 75 percent -- did not.[36]

Table 58: SCHOOLS WITH LARGEST ENROLLMENTS OF VA BENEFICIARIES
1972

		No. of Students
1.	Advance Schools Inc., Chicago*	51,114
2.	Commercial Trades Institute, Chicago*	34,880
3.	Bell and Howell Schools, Chicago*	33,798
4.	LaSalle Extension University, Chicago*	23,346
5.	Cleveland Institute of Electronics, Cleveland*	16,618
6.	National Technical Schools, Los Angeles*	13,747
7.	Universal Training Service Inc., Miami*	9,806
8.	Capital Radio Engineering Institute, Washington, DC*	8,564
9.	National Radio Institute, Washington, DC*	7,901
10.	Elba Corporation, Denver*	6,281
11.	Bell and Howell Schools, Inc. Home Study, Chicago*	5,493
12.	International Accountants Society, Chicago*	5,477
13.	University of Maryland, College Park	4,381
14.	California State University, Long Beach	4,185
15.	University of Washington, Seattle	4,063
16.	California State University, San Diego	3,861
17.	University of Minnesota, Minneapolis	3,729
18.	California State University, San Jose	3,558
19.	Northeastern University, Boston	3,494
20.	California State University, Los Angeles	3,472
21.	California State University, Sacramento	3,384

*Major portion or all of enrollment participating in correspondence courses.

Source: VA, unpublished data, 1973.

A question which is related to the problem of low completion rates is the question of VA counseling and guidance for veterans enrolling in correspondence training. Only 2.8 percent of veterans who entered correspondence training had received counseling under P.L. 550 during the Korean Conflict period.[37] The 1972 GAO study stated:

> "VA's policy is to provide educational and vocational guidance to all veterans who request it. Our review showed, however, that very few of the veterans enrolled in correspondence courses -- about 1 percent -- had received such assistance."[38]

Since the 1972 amendments to the GI Bill, the VA has included on its forms for applications by veterans the following instruction:

> "Home Study Courses: If you are considering enrolling in a home study course or a combination correspondence-residence course, be sure the field is suitable to your abilities and interests before you sign a contract with a school. Information is available at your nearest USVAC or VA Regional Office. VA counseling is available to you upon request. You may wish to further consider your decision to get help from a VA counselor before signing a contract which may require you to pay for all or the majority of the course even though you complete only a portion of it."
>
> (Application for Program of Education or Training, Form 22-1990)

While VA appears to be concerned with informing and cautioning veterans on certain aspects of correspondence study, there are no available data to suggest that more enrollees are receiving counseling than was indicated by the GAO study in 1972.

There are two unresolved questions which warrant careful attention by the VA. First, to what extent does a correspondence trainee benefit from partial completion of a course?

In 1956, the Bradley Commission took the view that "the low rate of completion suggests that many of the courses taken were of little subsequent use to the veterans."[39] This view was apparently buttressed by a 1955

Bureau of Census Survey which found that one half of those surveyed who had trained by correspondence indicated that they used that training "not at all" in subsequent employment.[40] There is apparently no study which gives a comparable indication for the current period, and there seems to be no evidence suggesting any improvement.

Representatives of this home-study field argue, however, that students take correspondence courses for a variety of reasons, and that many students fulfill their goals after completing only a portion of the course, and thereby benefit.

A second unresolved question in the issue of low veteran completion rates in correspondence training is the "cost-effectiveness" of the correspondence training program. A 1972 document of the Department of Veteran Benefits suggests that low completion rates in many courses implies the question of cost-benefits of the program:

> "Another cost consideration is that courses with low completion rates significantly increase the effective cost per course completion.. For those not completing the course, it might be assumed that the benefit was marginal. Therefore, the costs of students not completing the course must be added to the cost of those completing the course to give a true appraisal of the cost/benefits of the course. The effect of a low completion rate can double or triple the effective cost per student completing the course."[41]

The VA seems to have undertaken no investigation of the actual benefits of correspondence training to veterans, and has apparently not systematically evaluated its policy in this area. The problems do warrant close attention, however, since veteran participation continues to increase.

On-The-Job Training

The original GI Bill provided on-the-job training based on the principle of learning a trade by performing the necessary job operations. There are two major divisions of on-the-job training: apprenticeship and non-apprenticeship.

1) Apprenticeship training is based

> "...on voluntary acceptance by both employers and employees of an organized plan for training apprentices to become skilled workers in a particular trade or industry ... such training has been ably supervised by apprenticeship agencies, labor-management organizations and other groups."[42]

Apprenticeship standards are usually put into a written agreement, outlining the wage scale, length of apprenticeship, working conditions, etc. When apprenticeship is completed, the man is guaranteed a journeyman's wages.

2) Non-apprenticeship training provides training for one particular job, which is not recognized as apprenticeable, but which will, with reasonable certainty, result in job placement upon completion of the training.[43]

This form of training became quite popular after World War II and the number of veterans who participated at one point surpassed all other educational programs.

Table 59: ANNUAL AVERAGE NUMBER OF VETERANS IN TRAINING ON THE JOB UNDER PUBLIC LAW 346, FY1945-55

1945	500	1951	150,100
1946	90,400	1952	93,600
1947	566,300	1953	42,100
1948	520,400	1954	14,200
1949	378,700	1955	3,600
1950	263,200		

This program maintained a high level of trainees through the years 1947, 1948, and 1949. This was in large part due to the fact that the programs of training were in many cases set up for 2 and [illegible] years.

Source: Bradley Commission, Staff Report IX, (B), p. 43

Problems and Solutions

There were several inherent difficulties with on-the-job training. The 1946 legislation did not set any formal standards for non-apprenticeship training, which resulted in a lack of uniformity between the states with respect to wage scales, length and adequacy of courses in relation to vocational objectives. Nor was a statutory limitation imposed on the amount of money a veteran could receive as compensation plus subsistence. This led inevitably to abuses which were aggravated by a lack of personnel to inspect and supervise training establishments.[44] Some of these abuses were:

1) Veterans were training for jobs in which they were already proficient.
2) Training did not coincide with job objectives.
3) State coordinators were reimbursed for inspection of establishments where no veterans were enrolled
4) Employees' wages were set at low levels to maximize subsistence allowances and increase profits for employers.[45]

P.L. 679, approved in 1947, was designed to remedy this situation. On the recommendations of the VA, the law authorized reimbursement to the States for expenses incurred for inspection and supervision of training establishments, the establishment of standards, and the establishment of limitations on the combined total income plus subsistence per month.[46]

In 1952, P.L. 550 imposed regulations with regard to standards of approval, ceiling limitations and reductions in wages at established intervals. These two laws helped to check abuses, but consequently reduced the participation of veterans in on-the-job training programs by making the program less attractive.

On-the-job training programs were seen as worthwhile and popular programs, although wasteful.[47] In an effort to ascertain the effectiveness of this program, a national survey was conducted by the National Association of State Approval Agencies in 1950 which found that of 29,055 trainees, 12,580 were still employed by the firms who had trained them. The Bradley Commission reports that

> "It is reasonable to assume that a substantial number of the veterans which have lost contact with their trainer, are employed in a job for which they were trained and that more than 65% of them have achieved the employment objective. This figure is considered highly satisfactory in light of the normal results of established educational programs."[48]

A 1955 survey by the Bureau of the Census reported that "...Half of the job trainees...find their GI training indispensable."[49]

The Current Program

A comparison of participation rates between the three GI Bill programs indicates that as of April 1973, there were 4.2 percent of Vietnam Era veterans participating in training. This is a considerable reduction from World War II on-the-job training programs with a 9.1 percent participation rate, yet slightly higher than the Korean Conflict level of 4.0 percent.[50]

The 1973 figure represents an increase over the previous two years, which were 3.3 percent (December 1971) and 3.9 percent (November 1972), respectively.[51] The gradual increase in participation rates for veterans over the last few years may be attributable to two factors:

1) The on-the-job training outreach program has increased its efforts to encourage employers to offer training positions to Vietnam Era veterans. From July 1971 to February 1973, 124,193 new on-the-job training positions were opened at 35,257 establishments.[52] The VA works in conjunction with the Department of Labor in this effort. Standards are established by the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training in the Department of Labor, and these standards are referred to the State Approving agencies, which then approve establishments for training for veterans.

2) Legislation has also been oriented towards improving the benefits available to veterans in on-the-job training programs. Unlike the legislation for the World War II veteran, there is no wage ceiling so that veterans can press for higher wages. In an effort to insure assistance to veterans, as opposed to the subsidization of employers, the law requires that wages paid to "...the eligible veteran... are not less than wages paid nonveterans in the same position and are at least 50 per centum of the wages paid for the job for which he is to be trained..." and that these wages will be increased in regular periodic increments until they reach at least 85 percent of the wages normally paid for the job, not later than the last full month of training.[53]

In spite of increasing participation rates, Sar Levitan reported,

> "Little is known about the quality of training offered to veterans under OJT. In the absence of hard data, it may be surmised that some employers misused the allowance system to hire veterans at lower wages. Also, the OJT programs are not required to include a minimum number of employees or to have been in business for two years before receiving approval. Such loose requirements do little to assure meaningful training."[54]

The On-Farm Program

It is difficult to compare the on-farm training program for each benefit period, because the entire scope of the program has changed. Originally included as a part of the on-the-job program, the on-farm program combined institutional training and individual or group instruction on the farm of the veteran, or where he was employed on a farm. The on-farm program lacked uniformity in minimum training requirements. As a result, the program was reduced from a full-time to a part-time program, an action which was severely criticized.[55] This led to the passage of P.L. 377, approved on August 6, 1947, which established institutional on-farm training as a specialized program.[56]

To be considered as a full-time course, 200 hours of monthly classroom instruction were required, as well as supervised work experience on a farm. The farm had to

"1) occupy the full time of the veteran

2) permit instruction in all aspects of farm management, and

3) assure the self-employed veteran of a satisfactory income [veterans were to receive a full subsistence allowance] under normal conditions."[57]

The program also differentiated between self-employed and employee trainees.

Inefficiencies and Solutions

There were several major problems in the administration of the on-farm program. Supervision of program was divided, so that the VA supervised the program for the disabled veteran, while the States supervised the program for the nondisabled veteran. The VA, then, relied entirely upon school instructors to see that the veteran was in full time training, as well as do the paperwork involved. Furthermore, the VA relied on local advisory committees to determine whether the veteran applicant met the requirements of the law and regulations. These committees often exerted considerable political pressure on instructors and officials.[58] Other problems, such as the number of veterans who discontinued the program (estimated at 100,000) by 1951 contributed to an expenditure level in excess of $100 million, that was, for the most part, wasted.[59] In addition, costs of instruction, due to small ratio of students to teachers, travel expenses of instructors, and instances of fraud made the program quite costly. It must be noted, however, that in a VA survey conducted in 1954, of 291 veterans enrolled in the on-farm training program, 245 or 84 percent were engaged in some form of agricultural employment.[60]

P.L. 550, as it did for other programs, closed many of the gaps in previous laws and instituted VA rules and regulations. The training was to occupy the veterans full time, and there was a statutory reduction in allowance at 4-month intervals.

The Current Program

The on-farm program today differs from past programs in that it is based almost entirely on institutional training courses related to farm operations, in conjunction with actual farm experience sponsored by the educational institution and involving field trips and individual and group instruction. Unlike the original program, the cooperative farm program today does not have individual instructors supervising the actual work experience on the veteran's farm, or where he is employed. A full-time program consists of 10 hours per week or 440 hours per year with no less than 80 hours in any three month period.[61]

Participation in on-farm training program has continually decreased from the World War II level. A comparison of participation rates after

83 months of training is shown below.[62]

World War II	Korean Conflict	Vietnam Era
4.1 percent	1.7 percent	0.1 percent

It is not clear why the participation rate is so small, although there may be several factors involved:

1) There are fewer farmers today. Since 1947, employment in agriculture has dropped 52 percent. There were only 4 million farmers in 1968.[63]

2) There has been a decline in agricultural extension courses available.[64]

3) The institutional requirements prior to October 1972 were more stringent (12 hours a week, for 44 weeks or 528 hours per year) and may have discouraged veterans from participating.[65]

4) The most important, however, is the changing nature of American agriculture. The modern farm is a business and the modern farmer is likely to go to college to study agricultural economics or management, while his counterpart after World War II more nearly reflected the traditional image of a farmer. Farm training as a variation of apprenticeship made sense in 1945; in 1973 it has almost died out and the enrollment figures reflect it. There is almost nothing left to compare.

The Flight Training Program

Not unlike the on-farm training program, the flight training program has changed considerably in scope and participation by veterans. Flight training was a popular program under the World War II GI Bill, but due to legislative changes which have reduced the benefits and have imposed more stringent requirements, participation in the program has decreased.

The program of flight training was not defined by legislation for the World War II GI Bill. Since a veteran could pursue a course regardless of the purpose or relation of the course to vocational objectives, many veterans chose flight training. By November 1947, 18,400 veterans were enrolled in flight training courses, predominantly in profit-making institutions.[66] Of 3,141 flight schools on the approved list as of October 31, 1949, 3,134 operated for profit, 2,783 (88.8 percent) of which had been established subsequent to 1944.[67]

Soon after the passage of P.L. 862 approved on June 30, 1948, the number of veteran enrollees began to decline sharply. This law prohibited the VA from awarding training benefits to veterans enrolled in courses which the Administrator determined to be avocational or recreational. Flight training came under this category unless the veteran could adequately assure the VA that the course was in connection with his present or contemplated business or occupation.[68] These prohibitions were further strengthened by P.L. 266 passed in August 1949, which required the veteran to submit an affidavit supported by affidavits of two disinterested persons that this training would be useful in connection with earning a livelihood.[69]

The Korean Conflict program set forth the requirement that veterans were to be paid 75 percent of the established rate of the course and that the entitlement was to be reduced one day for each $1.25 of the veteran's entitlement.[70]

The Current Program

Present legislation requires the veteran to possess a private pilot's license in order to take any course in flight training and to show that these courses are necessary for the attainment of a recognized vocational objective. In addition, the veteran receives 90 percent of the established rate of the course and is charged with one month for each $220 that is paid to the veteran as an educational assistance allowance.[71] This legislation and its restrictions may account for the small participation rate of 0.8 percent for Vietnam Era veterans as compared to 2.3 percent and 1.1 percent for World War II and the Korean Conflict Era.[72]

SPECIAL PROGRAMS

VA special programs, including free entitlement, PREP, tutorial assistance and work-study represent an increased awareness on the part of the VA, of educational deficiencies which have traditionally stifled the career and training aspirations of a minority of veterans eligible for benefits. Although the effect of these programs on overall participation rates cannot be gauged precisely, free entitlement and PREP have undoubtedly enabled a greater number of disadvantaged Vietnam Era veterans to enter postsecondary programs of some sort. Furthermore, the work-study program, although still in its initial stages, has tremendous potential for providing financial assistance to veterans currently not in training due to lack of funds.

Free Entitlement

The free entitlement benefit, effective since August 31, 1967, assists veterans who have academic deficiences in attaining a high school diploma or General Educational Development certification. Under this program, veterans may also take those courses needed to qualify them for enrollment in postsecondary programs.

An eligible veteran who needs refresher or deficiency courses to qualify for admission to an appropriate educational institution, is also allowed to pursue such courses without charge to his 36-month period of entitlement.

Participation

In April 1973, 30,031 trainees including 3,851 servicemen were receiving free entitlement. Of these, 22,218 were completing high school. While 7,813 recipients were in college taking deficiency or preparatory courses to qualify them for the standard college curriculm. As of April 1973, 118,833 veterans had used the free entitlement benefit, and 102,000 of these were educationally disadvantaged.[73]

Efforts by the Veterans Administration to reach and motivate the disadvantaged have had a positive effect on their participation, especially in recent months. The participation rate for the educationally disadvantaged has increased substantially from 16.7 percent in June of 1971 to 25.5 percent as of November 30, 1972. The current participation rate for the disadvantaged is estimated by the Veterans Administration to be 28.9 percent, a further increase of 3.4 percent over 7 months.

Almost half (47 percent) of the educationally disadvantaged who have entered training within the operative dates of the free entitlement program have made use of this benefit. However, if the Veterans Administration estimate of participation by the disadvantaged is correct, less than 12 percent of all disadvantaged veterans have made use of it during the operative dates of the program.

Payment

Veterans receiving the free entitlement are paid at the same rate as veterans pursuing education or training under Chapter 34; full-time single students receive $220 per month until completion of their program or until they qualify for the postsecondary program they wish to pursue.

Predischarge Education Program

The Predischarge Education Program, the Free Entitlement program for servicemen, "...assists them in preparing for their future education, training or vocation by providing them with the opportunity to enroll in and pursue a program of education or training prior to their discharge from active duty with the Armed Forces."[74] To participate, the serviceman must have competed 180 consecutive days of active duty. The fundamental difference between the Predischarge Education Program and the Free Entitlement program is that servicemen under PREP may pursue only the high school diploma and not courses leading to the GED examination.

PREP, established by Public Law 91--219, has been in effect since March 26, 1970. It encompasses no vocational courses, except as a required part of a regular high school diploma, or subjects given for college credit toward a degree. PREP courses are:

(1) elementary and secondary level courses leading to a high school diploma, or

(2) deficiency, remedial, or refresher courses at the elementary or secondary level preparatory to the pursuit of a postsecondary program.

A deficiency course is defined as one on the secondary level, not previously completed satisfactorily, which is specifically required for enrollment in a postsecondary program. A remedial course is designed to overcome a deficiency at the elementary or secondary level. Refresher courses review and update material previously satisfactorily completed at the elementary or secondary level.

College preparatory courses, for which no degree credit is granted, are also appropriate under PREP. They may serve as refresher or motivational training for persons who have been out of school for several years. With the exception of the Overseas Dependents School System of the Department of Defense, which has established PREP programs abroad, and programs offered by schools under cotract with the Department of Defense, courses taken outside the United States must be at the college level and lead to a baccalaureate degree.

Payment and Rates

Servicemen participating in PREP are paid a lump sum for the entire quarter, semester or term, and may be paid in advance. Tuition rates for PREP courses for which there is no "same program" for purposes of comparability may be set by the Veterans Administration.

Coordination between Veterans Administration and the Department of Defense

To make the PREP program effective the Veterans Administration and the Department of Defense coordinate:

(1) provision of information and outreach programs to apprise the servicemen of the existence of PREP.

(2) meetings with educational institutions to encourage the establishment of PREP programs.

(3) release from duty-time for servicemen to pursue at least one-half of the time required for full-time programs.

Certification and Enrollment

For courses in basic English, language skills, and mathematics, certification may be made by the service education officer or the institution the serviceman is about to enter. An eligible person may remain enrolled in a refresher, remedial, or deficiency program until the end of the approved program or until such time as the school he is attending will admit him to its regular program, whichever is earlier. The veteran must also maintain a standard of satisfactory progress.

Participation

As of April 1973, 54,765 servicemen had taken advantage of training opportunities under the PREP program, and 3,851 servicemen were receiving free entitlement under PREP.

Program Improvement

The results of coordination between the Department of Defense and the Veterans Administration (inter-service and agency coordinating committee) yeilded the following evaluative suggestions for the improvement of the program. As stated in a memorandum to the Director of Education and Rehabilitation on May 14, 1973, the committee will attempt to:

(1) Establish a checklist of standards similar to accrediting standards for staff, supportive services, and quality of instruction.

(2) Establish council representing school, military installation, and the student body for the purpose of exchanging information and coordinating activities.

(3) Establish procedures for pursuing complaints through State Accrediting Agency referrals, Committee on Educational Allowances, and accrediting agencies.

Within the Department of the Army, several new policies on PREP have been implemented:[75]

March 1972: Announced policy authorizing commanders to delay reassignment of PREP students up to 90 days to complete a course or cycle.

Sept. 1972: Complete expansion of PREP to all commands outside of the continental United States.

By the end of fiscal year 1973, the Army expected to have PREP at 229 installations. New programs are said to account for an increased enrollment of 1,200 in the high school division of PREP. The Army estimated that in fiscal year 1973, 220,000 Army members would benefit from high school PREP and 110,000 from remedial programs. For fiscal year 1974, projections are 231,000 for high school, and 115,000 for remedial. The Navy and Air Force are implementing similar improvements and expansions in their individual PREP efforts.

Tutorial Assistance

The tutorial assistance program for veterans began on March 26, 1970. It provides special help to veterans in overcoming difficulties in a subject required for the satisfactory pursuit of an educational objective.

To receive tutorial assistance, a veteran or serviceman must be enrolled under the GI Bill on a half-time or more basis. The school must also certify that the veteran needs tutorial help to overcome difficulty in a course which is an essential part of an approved program of study. The VA then approves the individualized tutorial assistance. In addition to whatever educational assistance allowance the veteran is receiving, he may receive an additional $50 a month for a maximum of nine months or until a total of $450 has been used. The tutor chosen to provide such assistance must be qualified, and charges for tutoring may not exceed the customary charges for such services.

Determination of Need

The need to demonstrate marked academic deficiency is no longer required. That is, granting of tutorial assistance no longer hinges on unsatisfactory grades. It is the stated position of the Veterans Administration that the primary purpose of the tutorial benefit is to help avoid failure. The need for tutorial assistance, then may be established by the school in either of the following ways:

(1) If the quality of the student's performance in the course itself indicates that special assistance may be needed.

(2) If data, such as information from admissions, placement, or other diagnostic material show that the student is weak in the subject matter of the course and odds are against his completing the course satisfactorily without special help; and, the weakness is such that it is reasonable to assume that tutorial assistance may be effective.

Granting of Assistance

A student's need for assistance may be established before he starts the course. When need is established early, the beneficiary may use the assistance from the start of the course. However, if a school makes early certification of need, it must maintain specific documentation (tests or assignments) showing the basis on which need was identified. An instructor's referral, supported by grades or other evidence, may provide necessary documentation.

Although tutorial assistance is primarily on an individual basis, when the subject requires participation by several people, simultaneous tutoring of more than one person is appropriate.

Participation

VA data indicate that the number of individuals paid as of March 31, 1973 under the tutorial assistance program was 21,034, and the amount paid was $1,933,761. The maximum monthly payment of $50 has been paid for a total of 22,301 veteran months.

Work-Study

The work-study program provides an allowance to veterans pursuing full-time programs in exchange for services provided. Priority is given, whenever possible, to those veterans with disabilities of 30 percent or more. The allowance is paid in advance in the amount of $250 in return for the veteran student's agreement to perform services totalling 100 hours during an enrollment period. The total allotment for work-study is limited to 800 man-years during the fiscal year. Additional selection criteria for work-study include:

(1) need for veteran to augment his subsistence allowance.
(2) availability of transportation to place of employment for individual veteran.
(3) motivation of the individual.
(4) compatibility of work assignment to veteran's physical condition.

Veterans' services are used for outreach activities, paper processing, school liaison and telephone staffing.

Participation

The work study program, which became effective on October 24, 1972, had a 200,000 hour allocation for fiscal year 1973. Applications received under Veterans of Educational Assistance for fiscal year 1973 number 3,342. Veterans who were authorized to work 100 hours totaled 773 with 597 working less than 100 hours. The veterans' time is allocated as follows:

VA Liaison and Compliance Survey	1,400 hours
Va Paperwork and Processing	19,792
VA Outreach to the Disadvantaged	4,400
School	77,119
Other	500

As of May 1973, six months after enactment, a total of 14 work agreements with veterans had been completed and a total of 510 hours worked, as shown in the table below.

Table 60: WORK STUDY PROGRAM
May 1973

Description			Veterans	Disabled Veterans
Part I.	Applications Received		3,342	589
Part II. Payments Authorized	A. Number of veterans to work 100 hours		773	239
	B. Number of veterans to work less than 100 hours		597	116
	C. Total Hours	1. VA-Liaison and compliance survey	1,400	750
		2. VA-Paperwork processing	19,732	7,529
		3. VA-Outreach	4,400	2,085
		4. School	77,119	18,399
		5. Other	500	700
		Total (1-5)	103,211	29,463
Part III. Completed Agreements	A. Number of veterans		14	24
	B. Total hours worked		570	577
Part IV. Terminated Agreements	A. Number of veterans		7	4
	B. Total hours worked		36	21

Source: Reports and Statistics Service, Veterans Administration

Chapter 10

THE OTHER FOUR PERCENT: DISABLED, ORPHANS AND WIDOWS

This study has concentrated on veterans and educational benefits under the GI Bill. The Veterans Administration provides educational benefits to two other classes of beneficiaries not covered by the GI Bill: Disabled Veterans, and Widows and Orphans, who together make up about 4 percent of the total beneficiaries. Vocational Rehabilitation Training, the official name for the disabled veterans' program, was provided to 19,555 veterans as of April 1973.[1] Dependents Educational Assistance, the orphans and widows program, was provided to 45,836 as of April 1973.[2] By way of contrast, 1,400,566 veterans were in training under the GI Bill at the same time period.[3]

Vocational Rehabilitation Training

Three separate laws cover disabled veterans of the three eras: PL 78-16 covered World War II disabilities and became effective on March 24, 1943; PL 81-894 became effective February 1, 1951 to cover the Korean era; and PL 87-815 which covers service between WW II and Korean as well as the post-Korean period. While the basic provisions of the three laws are not identical, they are very similar (see table of comparisons in Appendix A) except for changes in subsistence payments.

While the "regular" GI Bill underwent major changes during its three successive versions to cover three wars, the Vocational Rehabilitation laws remained much the same, including the continuing provision for a separate payment of tuition, fees, books and supplies. Inasmuch as the type of benefits did not change, it is relatively easy to evaluate the comparability of the basic allowances over the three periods. (See Figure 22.)

Although it is difficult to make comparisons in a changing social context, it seems clear that educational benefits for disabled unmarried veterans tended to lag at the beginning of the Vietnam Era benefits, being less than 5 percent higher than the Korean benefits established 14 years earlier in a period of mild inflation and rising costs. The Congress increased these benefits in 1970, and again in 1972, by an amount that matched or exceeded the increases in the cost of living.

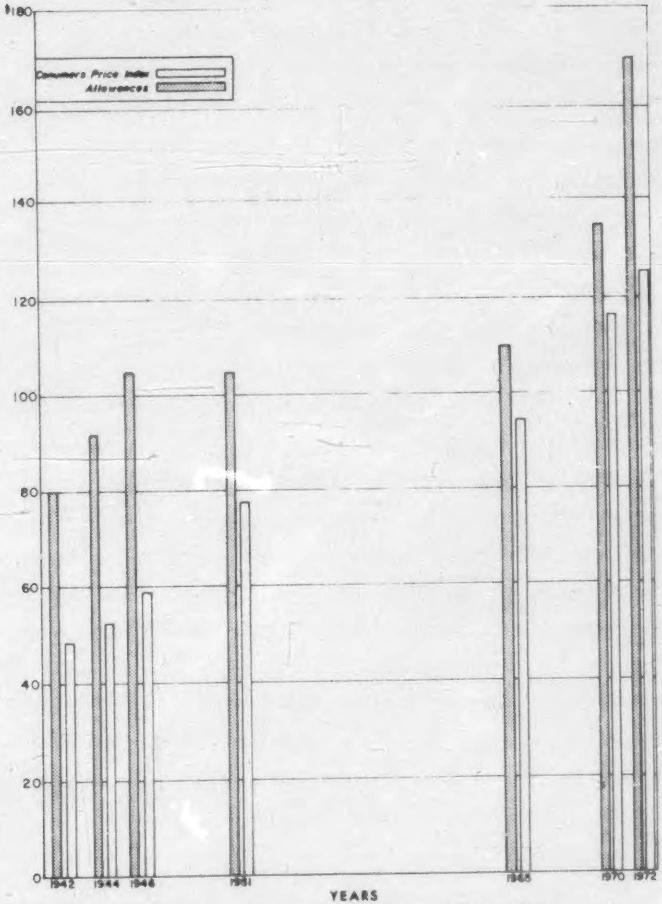
This comparison of benefits, based on the relatively unchanged provisions of the program, contrasts sharply with the comparisons of the other veterans, whose programs have changed considerably.

The basic difference is the continuing provision of tuition payments plus subsistence and disability compensation to veterans receiving benefits under Vocational Rehabilitation Training, while veterans receiving training under the GI Bill are paid a single allowance to cover both tuition and subsistence. As a consequence, the measurement of comparability and adequacy of benefits paid to veterans of World War II and those paid to veterans of the Vietnam Conflict is far more difficult.

Veteran students receiving benefits under Vocational Rehabilitation Training tend to follow the trend of the general college-going population and enroll heavily in publicly supported colleges. The latest data indicate that 71.4 percent of the vocational rehabilitation trainees

FIGURE 22

MONTHLY EDUCATIONAL ALLOWANCES FOR UNMARRIED DISABLED VETERANS, COMPARED TO CPI.



SOURCE: CPI from Bureau of Labor Statistics, Economic Report of the President Jan. 73 Allowances from Data Provided by Veterans Administration.

were enrolled in public institutions and 28.6 percent attended private institutions. This contrasts with veterans receiving benefits under the GI Bill who were enrolled 81.0 percent in public institutions and 19.0 percent in private. That a larger percentage of the trainees under Vocational Rehabilitation Training are enrolled in private institutions may be influenced by the separate tuition payments paid on their behalf. Since their choice of institution is not influenced by cost considerations, they are free, in conjunction with their counselors, to seek the educational programs that can best meet their needs occasioned by the disability.

Meeting the special needs of the trainees under Vocational Rehabilitation Training is also evident in another significant way. Where veterans normally must enroll in courses specifically approved by a State Approving Agency, the disabled veteran is not confined to these courses. His program, prepared with the assistance of a VA counselor, enables him to take courses best suited for his individual needs and which the VA can approve without the necessity of recourse to any other agency.

To be sure, in most cases the course or program of studies is on the list of those which have been approved, but within this program is a means of direct federal approval of courses for vocational rehabilitation trainees, a system enhanced by the relatively high degree of individual attention provided under the counseling setup.

In summary, the disabled veteran enjoys a level of allowances which appears to be maintaining its relationship with cost of living indices. The small size of the program -- fewer than 20,000 trainees -- enables the VA to provide more individual counseling and advice and to tailor programs to meet the disabled veteran's individual requirements.

Dependents Educational Assistance

Educational benefits provided to dependents of veterans, because of its recent origin, does not permit comparison over time. The program includes 45,336 dependents[4] of persons who died in the service or who are permanently and totally disabled veterans because of a service-connected condition. Also included are dependents of prisoners of war (or missing in action) for more than 90 days. Table 61 gives a distribution between orphans, widows, and wives and shows what kind of education they are undertaking as of April 1973.

Unlike Vocational Rehabilitation Training, there is no provision for a separate tuition allowance nor payment for fees and supplies. The program provides an educational assistance allowance to meet, in part, the expenses of the eligible person's subsistence, tuition, etc.

Since its inception in 1956, educational benefits for dependents have been successively increased.

In comparing the benefit levels for the three types of beneficiaries -- veterans under the regular GI Bill, dependents, and vocational rehabilitation trainees -- there appears to be some internal consistency among the three programs. Figure 23 compares educational allowances for the veteran receiving benefits under the GI Bill with those made available to disabled trainees and widows or orphans.

Some Anomalies

A review of the three different programs for three different kinds

Table 61: DEPENDENTS EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE

Persons in Training - April 1973

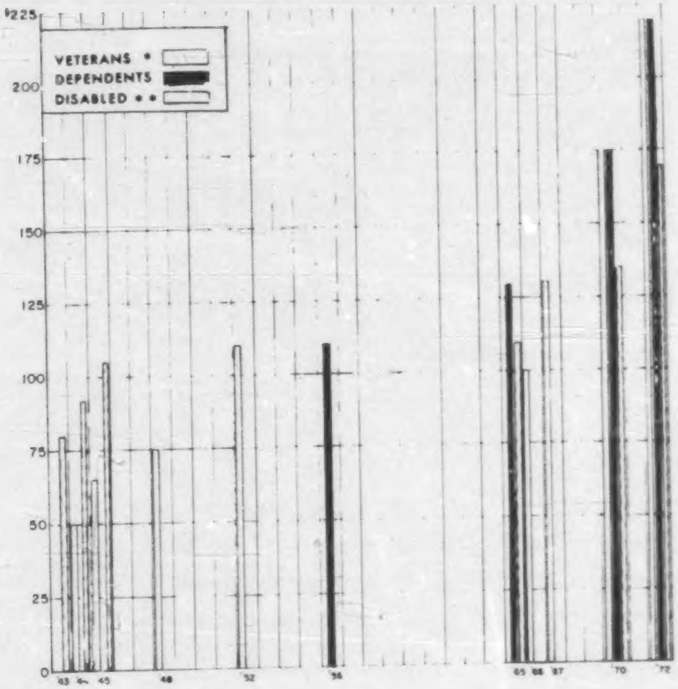
	Total	Orphans	Children of 100% Disab.	Widows	Wives of 100% Disab.	POW/MIA Children	POW/MIA Wives
Total	45,836	22,878	16,426	4,620	1,826	50	36
College	41,975	21,546	15,261	3,695	1,393	47	33
Graduate	1,666	647	502	389	118	1	9
Jr. College	12,323	5,985	3,903	1,743	681	8	3
Other Undergraduate	27,986	14,914	10,856	1,563	594	38	21
Below College Level	3,793	1,320	1,151	923	430	3	3
Special Restorative	31	12	14	2	3	-	-
On-Job	37	18	14	2	2	-	1
Correspondence 1/	26			18	8		
Free Entitlement 1/	94			62	32		

1/ Overcount

Source: Information Bulletin 24-73-3, DVB, April 1973

FIGURE 23

COMPARISON OF EDUCATIONAL ALLOWANCES FOR THREE TYPES OF BENEFICIARIES



* Plus tuition and supply allowance which was discontinued in 1952.

** The comparisons for Disabled veterans are not meaningful because they must be adjusted for:

1) Through 1946, the allowance combined disability compensation and subsistence, plus a separate tuition and supplies allowance
2) From 1965, the allowance is for subsistence (excluding disability compensation)
3) Disabled veterans continue to get a separate allowance for tuition, etc.

of beneficiaries discloses some differences, sometimes rooted in legislation, sometimes embodied in administrative regulations. A few are noted as examples:

1. Veterans, under the GI Bill, may study in foreign colleges and universities but not in non-degree institutions. Vocational rehabilitation veterans may not routinely study abroad (unless a comparable program is not available at home, a requirement not invoked for "regular" veterans). Widows and orphans, like GI Bill beneficiaries, may not study at foreign non-degree granting schools under veterans benefits.

2. All courses attended by regular veterans and by dependents must be approved by the State Approving Agency (except for foreign schools which get federal approval from the VA). Disabled veterans are not a regular part of this SAA system and may get direct VA counselor approval of courses.

3. Widows and wives of veterans may enroll in high school courses and remedial work, but orphans currently may not.

4. Wives and widows may enroll in correspondence courses currently, but orphans may not.

While these are technicalities, they tend to illustrate the administrative complexities of operating three similar programs with sufficient differences in the laws and operating rules to provide confusion for potential beneficiaries and to increase the workload of the VA. The question is one of lack of efficiency and possible discouragement of eligible persons who have to cope with pamphlets and instructions which, by the current nature of the programs, cannot be simple and direct.

Chapter 11

INFORMING AND COUNSELING THE VETERAN

Informing and counseling the veteran are of vital importance to the effectiveness of benefits and services rendered to veterans. The two are complementary: One lets the veteran know what benefits and opportunities he has available; the other attempts to help the veteran choose a direction and to resolve his personal and psychological problems. An important supplemental role is played by the Community Service Specialists (social workers) in the Veterans Administration and outreach workers, peer counselors, etc., in the non-VA effort who attempt to break down any barriers to his usage of the benefits. The following sections detail the efforts to provide these services to veterans.

Informing the Veteran

The need to provide direct personal assistance to veterans with regard to veterans benefits was recognized early in the history of the VA. The War Veterans Act of 1924 authorized the formation of a service that would inform veterans of their benefits and assist them in obtaining these benefits. Under the Act, the Information Cooperation Division was established in the Veterans Bureau. When the VA was established in 1930, the Information Cooperation Division was replaced by the Contact Division, which was later changed to the Contact Service in 1945. To conform to an expansion of its services, the title was changed to the Veterans Assistance Division in 1972. As of August 1973, the Veterans Assistance Division has again become an independent division.

In 1952 the firm of Booz, Allen and Hamilton described the nature and role of the Contact Service:

> "...Contact Service acts as public relations agent for each one of the substantive programs and provides a uniform avenue through which information concerning programs, policies, and procedures can be conveyed to veterans. It also serves as the basic point through which veterans can deal with Veterans Administration and be assured of coordinated consideration and action. The principal objectives of Contact Service are:
>
> (1) To keep veterans and their beneficiaries fully informed of the benefits and services available to them...
>
> (2) To provide personal service, in the quantity and at the locations required by demand for it, in answering specific questions of veterans and beneficiaries...
>
> (3) To provide personal assistance to veterans and beneficiaries in applying for benefits and services...
>
> (4) To explain personally to veterans and beneficiaries actions taken by Veterans Administration...
>
> (5) To provide follow-up service, as requested by veterans and beneficiaries...
>
> (6) To represent Veterans Administration generally to veterans and beneficiaries so as to promote, establish and maintain good relations with them.
>
> (7) To promote, establish and maintain for Veterans Administration good local public relations throughout the country...."[1]

The role of the Contact Service or Veterans Assistance Division, as it is presently called, has changed little since 1952 as Olney Owen, Chief Benefits Director, revealed in the foreword to the Handbook for Veterans Administration Contact Representatives in 1971:

> "...Contact Representatives are our 'answermen.' They tell the veteran what the benefits are, they assist him in applying for them, they explain VA procedures and decisions, and they act as 'trouble-shooters' when there is a procedural delay or an area of concern to the veteran...."[2]

While this role has not substantially changed, there have been far reaching changes in the policy, character, and scope of the services provided.

As the point of direct contact between the veteran and the VA, the effectiveness of the Veterans Assistance Division is of vital importance to the success of VA and its programs.

Policy

Although it was always the policy of the Contact Service to provide veterans with information about their benefits, contact representatives were not allowed to promote benefits or act as an advocate for the veteran[3] until 1968. Contact representatives[4] were limited to responding to the inquiries of veterans. In actuality, many contact representatives did take the initiative as Booz, Allen and Hamilton discovered in their management survey:

> "...The essential function of contact representatives is to provide veterans with information. Accordingly, the policy generally followed is one of informational service rather than one of sales promotion. However, there is a noticeable tendency among contact representatives to 'sell' veterans' benefits and services by initiating discussions of benefits other than those which were the original purpose of the visit...
>
> The original intent of the Contact Service was to provide a place where veterans could obtain answers to questions and assistance in applying for benefits. In many field stations these basic functions have been extended to the point where contact representatives are representing the veteran as his advocate before rating boards. This creates the untenable situation of an employee of the agency promoting an interest which may be contrary to that of the agency and in direct conflict with its primary responsibilities....[5]

Although the VA did not initiate a promotional campaign, publicity of veterans' benefits after World War II was widespread. Returning veterans represented a sizeable portion of the male population which encouraged an even greater attention to their needs and concerns.

Some proprietary schools carried on their own promotional campaigns.

The situation was far different for the Vietnam period. By 1968 the VA found that the Veterans Readjustment Benefits Act of 1966 was not "taking hold."[6] Recognizing the distinctive social and personal problems of the Vietnam veteran and the activist social milieu, the VA decided to aggressively seek out and inform veterans of their rights and benefits. Special efforts were designed to reach out to the educationally disadvantaged.

The Outreach program has come to include overseas orientations, presentations at separation points, a series of letters mailed to recently returned veterans, one-stop assistance centers called U.S. Veterans Assistance Centers (USVAC'S), mobile vans, and toll-free WATS and FX lines. This policy shift was put into law in the 1970 Amendments to the GI Bill (P.L. 91-219).

Scope and Character of Contact Activities

Contact activities have undergone numerous changes since World War II, as seen below:

Table 62: CONTACT ACTIVITIES AT POINTS IN THE THREE GI BILL PERIODS

	Contact Services at:				
Year	Regional Offices	Hospitals	Other Offices	Itinerant Points	Contact Employees**
1947	69	123	1048		6492
1948				1659	
1956	66	173	298		1926
1972	57	169	21*	65	1835

* The USVAC's that are co-located with a Regional or VA Office are not counted as a separate contact location.

** These data are as of June 30, 1947; June 30, 1956; and December 31, 1972.

NOTE: While the numbers indicate a trend, they are not totally comparable because office designations are not exact and office functions have varied for each period. There has also been a population shift during this period.

Source: Management Survey of Activities of the Veterans Administration by the firm of Booz-Allen & Hamilton, p. 392; The 1948 and 1956 Annual Reports of the Administrator of Veterans Affairs; and data supplied by the Veterans Assistance Division, VA.

The wide geographical distribution of contact locations after World War II lent a very personal quality to the service provided. Many contact representatives actually came to know the veterans in their area. This type of service was not only expensive but inefficient due to the review of all claims at the regional level. This procedure was also time consuming. There are few data available to evaluate the contact activities.[7]

Today's veterans assistance effort puts greater emphasis on group orientations, mail campaigns and telephone service than on the wide geographical distribution of its personnel.

Elements of the Vietnam Era Veterans Assistance Effort

The Overseas Program has ~~evolved~~ through three phases. The first phase, Operation "Early Word," began in January 1967 and ended in December 1972. VA contact representatives were stationed in Vietnam to brief returning servicemen and women through group orientation and individual assistance.[8]

Servicemen attending group orientation	1,891,724
Servicemen individually interviewed	255,038
Servicemen assisted in completing a benefit application	105,565

The Multi-agency Team Service evolved from "Early Word." Beginning in FY 1970, teams of representatives from the Department of Labor, the Office of Education and the VA were stationed at military bases in Europe, Thailand, Okinawa, Japan, Vietnam, and Korea. The purpose was to inform servicemen of the opportunities and benefits available to them. At the height of the program the VA had sixteen representatives overseas. The Office of Education had ten representatives in FY 1971 and four in FY 1972. A total of 84,939 servicemen attended the orientations in Southeast Asia and 99,944 attended the orientations in Europe.[9]

The team concept was phased out at the end of FY 1973 and replaced by the Two-Man concept. One representative serves all military personnel in Europe and another serves Southeast Asia. Rather than attempting to brief servicemen these representatives concentrate on the training of Project Transition and GED personnel in VA benefits and procedures.

Military Hospital Program. VA contact representatives have been providing service to approximately 178 military hospitals in the U.S. since 1967. The major focus of this program is to encourage severely disabled servicemen to apply for vocational rehabilitation programs. This allows prompt action upon separation from active duty. A similar program, although not as extensive, existed during the World War II and Korean periods. This program is presently being phased down.

Separation Point Program. VA contact representatives have been providing group orientations and individual interviews to servicemen being separated from active duty at approximately 200 military installations since 1967. A film titled "You Owe It To Yourself" is used in many of these orientations. The program is geared to meet the demand at these separation points and, at times, has provided 24-hour, 7-days-a-week service. "Almost 3.6 million servicemen have attended these orientations and over 454,000 personal interviews were conducted."[10]

Again a similar program, but not as well organized or thorough, was provided for servicemen returning after World War II and the Korean Conflict.

The Mailing Program began in May 1968 with a computerized letter sent to every eligible serviceman, shortly after his separation. As the VA explains:

> "...As each serviceman is separated, a copy of his DD Form 214 (Separation Report) is furnished to the VA. The 214's are screened to separate them into two groups: (1) Those having less than a high school education or equivalent and (2) Those having a high school or above educational level. Utilizing a computerized system, a letter is then mailed to each separatee inviting him to make full use of the benefit programs available (particularly the educational programs). Included with this letter is a postage-free post card to be used by the veteran should he desire additional information concerning any program. If the veteran so desires, he can indicate that he would like to have a VA representative contact him by telephone at a time and date he may specify on the card..."[11]

Surveys of responses to these letters were made in February and July of 1969 and again in August and October of 1971. Thirty-seven percent in the first survey[12] and 25 percent in the second responded to these letters;[13] approximately 50 percent of the respondents requested a return telephone call. Over 3,800,000 letters have been mailed since the program began.[14]

As of August 1, 1971, the VA expanded the initial mailing to include a notice of eligibility, instructions for applying for benefits, enrollment certification forms to be completed by the school, and an application form. This will facilitate applying for benefits by mail yet will further depersonalize the contact effort.

The mailing program also includes a special effort to reach the educationally disadvantaged. Upon screening the separation forms, the Regional Offices or USVAC's are notified of the educationally disadvantaged in their areas. The USVAC's then send a letter specifying an appointment time and date. If there is no response a second and third letter is sent upon which the veteran can request an appointment or a home visit.

Originally a series of telephone calls and home visits were attempted as part of the program to locate and motivate every educationally disadvantaged veteran. This proved extremely time consuming and of limited success. Although it did continue, it was not pursued as aggressively. To date 238,405 educationally disadvantaged veterans have been reached through home visits.[15]

Since October 1971, the State employment offices have been providing the VA with lists of Vietnam Era veterans who have been unemployed for 13 weeks or more. The VA then contacts these veterans by letter, encouraging them to make use of their benefits. Over 226,000 veterans have been contacted by this mailing.[16]

In March 1972, the VA began sending all separatees a 6-month follow-up letter, again encouraging the veteran to use his benefits. Between April 1972 and June 1972 over 800,000 of these letters were mailed.[17]

An information pamphlet detailing the benefits available to veterans is enclosed in each mailing.

Community Itinerant Points. Veterans Benefits Counselors make scheduled visits to 65 cities in the United States. In FY 1973, over 149,000 were conducted but only 20 percent of these were with Vietnam Era veterans.[18]

The United States Veterans Assistance Centers (USVAC) program was established in 1968 as a one-stop assistance center where veterans could receive personal attention on all the benefits available to them. They were originally to be staffed by Veterans Benefits Counselors and Community Service Specialists (social workers) of the VA and representatives of the State Employment Service, U.S. Civil Service Commission, and the Department of Labor's Office of Veterans' Reemployment Rights.

Their mission has been to promote educational achievement, to facilitate rapid readjustment to civilian life, to further the achievement of a high standard of living and productive satisfying life, and to receive and channel complaints concerning civil rights. Part of the mission of the USVAC's has been to aggressively seek out the educationally disadvantaged. This is detailed under the Mailing Program. To realize this the USVAC's major focus has been on the center city, depressed, or ghetto areas. The VA states that, "Procedures and activities in USVAC's clearly represent a departure from a somewhat passive approach of providing assistance only when requested or sought by a veteran."[19]

Presently there are 72 USVAC's. The USVAC's have fallen short of the one-stop center for they are usually staffed by only VA personnel and a representative of the State Employment Service. However, referral to other agencies has been maintained. Many of the USVAC's also have "job banks," microfiche viewers that contain updated job information. As of May 1969, all but three of the USVAC's were consolidated with the contact activities of regional and VA offices. This diffused the USVAC philosophy throughout all contact activities yet it decreased and centralized the number of contact locations.

A VA report in March 1973 detailed the success of the USVAC's: 1,510,606 interviews with Vietnam Era veterans; 230,585 of those interviews were with educationally disadvantaged veterans, and 85,803 jobs obtained for veterans.[20] But this success has been variable with different groups of veterans.

The USVAC's have been successful in reaching the educationally disadvantaged veterans in their service areas. As seen in Table 63 90 percent of all eligible educationally disadvantaged veterans had received an initial interview, structured to inform them of all the available benefits.

Outside the service area USVAC's have reached only 11 percent of the eligible educationally disadvantaged. The USVAC's mail letters and provide telephone service, at times toll-free, to these veterans. But the telephone calls and home visits to seek out these veterans are left to volunteering veterans organizations. This becomes extremely significant for 66.5 percent of the educationally disadvantaged are located outside the USVAC's service areas.

As seen in Table 63 a greater proportion of educationally disadvantaged veterans receive initial interviews than non-educationally disadvantaged (37.4 percent versus 31.6 percent). Since this group is much more difficult to reach, it appears that the VA has been relatively successful in its efforts. In total, however, the 32.5 percent of all eligible veterans who receive interviews are still a minority of all veterans. It should be noted that a veteran may pick up his forms at a school or veterans organization and use his benefits without ever stopping at a VA office. Accordingly, some veterans using their benefits have not had initial interviews.

Table 63: PERCENTAGE OF VETERANS RECEIVING INITIAL INTERVIEWS BETWEEN JULY 1, 1970 AND MAY 30, 1973

	Veterans Eligible For Benefits*	Veterans Who Received Initial Interview	% Received Initial Interview
Total Educationally Disadvantaged	312,414	116,782	37.4%
a) In Service Area	104,648	94,168	90.0
b) Outside Service Area	207,766	22,614	11.0
Total Non-educationally Disadvantaged	1,748,310	552,597	31.6
Total Veterans	2,060,724	669,379	32.5

* These data are taken from the number of veterans sent the initial mailing which includes all eligible veterans.

Source: Veterans Assistance Division, VA

In October 1968, a pilot social work program was begun in five regional offices. Due to the success of these projects, the number of Community Service Specialists (social workers) has steadily increased. In December 1972, there were 37.

The Community Service Specialist assists veterans, especially the educationally and socially disadvantaged veterans, in resolving problems that may present barriers to the use of their benefits. He also operates in the community to make contact with veterans and to build working relationships with the State and community resources. In some cases he builds on-going relationships with the veterans and provides follow-through services. In FY 1972 Community Service Specialists saw 26,000 veterans through 25 regional offices.[21] The program has been a valuable addition to the USVAC's services.

As of April 1973, the VA began placing Counseling Psychologists in 24 USVAC's to increase the availability of counseling services and to assist the Veterans Benefits Counselors and other USVAC staff.

Toll-free Telephone Service. Since 1967, veterans and their dependents, in some locations, can call the VA toll-free. But an internal survey by the VA Management Engineering staff in 1972 showed that 45 percent of all calls coming into the VA were missed or blocked.[22] As a result of this study the service was greatly expanded. A March 1973 report cited that toll-free service was being provided to 104 cities in the United States and that the VA was receiving 120,000 telephone inquiries each month. Over 4.1 million long distance toll-free calls have been received since the inception of the service.[23]

In 1947 and 1956, the VA had 1,240 and 537 contact locations, respectively. Even with this greater accessibility, 9,155,955 telephone calls were received in 1947 and 4,717,152 in 1956.[24] The number of calls received in 1972 was 11,456,390.[25] Therefore it is difficult to determine whether the toll-free telephone service provides a comparable degree of accessibility.

National Assistance for Veterans -- Mobile Vans. In June 1972, the VA initiated a mobile van service. Originally the vans were to have representatives of the Small Business Administration, the Office of Education, the Office of Economic Opportunity, Housing and Urban Development, and the State Employment Service. As it turned out, the caseload for these representatives could not justify their retention in the van unit although the Employment Service in some states still provides representatives. Cooperation is continued with these agencies on a referral basis. In March 1973, there were ten of these red, white, and blue mobile vans.

The vans usually travel to the main population centers in which there are no contact services available. They stay one to three days. Through June 1973, the vans had visited 1,087 communities in 24 states and interviewed 58,669 veterans. Yet of 43,228 veterans interviewed between January 1, 1973 and June 30, 1973, only 8,058 or 18.6 percent were Vietnam Era veterans, 857 of which were educationally disadvantaged.[26]

Veterans Employment Assistance Programs (Job Marts) and Veterans Community Assistance Programs. The VA has participated in or co-sponsored a variety of programs that provide on-site aid to veterans. These include

Job Marts, Veterans Community Assistance Programs, Back to School Nights, etc. These efforts gather employers, service and community organizations, school officials, and other interested groups in one location so that the veterans will have easy access to the available opportunities. The VA participated in or co-sponsored 200 Job Marts in FY 1972. The lack of jobs and the relatively small number of on-the-spot hirings have limited their effectiveness. There have been no evaluations or data on the other programs.

On-the-Job Training Outreach Program. This outreach effort originates from the Adjudication Division rather than the Veterans Assistance Division but it is part of the total character of the outreach effort. In July 1971, VA employees began visiting business establishments to encourage employers to establish OJT programs for Vietnam Era veterans. A March 1973 report cited that they had made 159,379 visits to 137,995 establishments, and opened 124,193 new OJT slots at 35,257 establishments.[27]

Effectiveness of the VA Outreach Effort

In June 1973, the VA completed the third in a series of surveys of recently returned Vietnam veterans. The surveys contacted veterans separated from the active duty for six to fourteen months. The veterans surveyed in the latest report, which is still in draft form, had returned to civilian life during the period from July 1970 through June 1971. The study found that 63.8 percent of the veterans surveyed remembered being contacted by the VA while in the service as shown in the following table.

Table 64: PERCENTAGE OF VETERANS CONTACTED BY THE VA WHILE IN SERVICE

Location or Time of Contact	Percent Contacted
Southeast Asia	10.0%
Military Hospital in U.S.	3.3
At time of separation	54.0
At some other time	8.5
TOTAL	63.8

Source: VA, Readjustment Profile for Recently Separated Vietnam Veterans - Draft, January 1973, p. 40

It appears that an even greater number recall being contacted by the VA after leaving active duty. In the first Profile of Recently Separated Veterans, which surveyed persons separated between July and December 1968, 75.9 percent reported that the VA contacted them by letter, telephone, or personal interview.[28] The second profile, which surveyed veterans separated between July and December 1970, discovered that the percentage of those contacted by the VA had increased to 80.8 percent.[29] In the most recent profile, the percent dropped only slightly to 79.5 percent.[30] A Louis Harris study completed in mid-1971 also points out the increasing contact with veterans. Sixty-three percent of the Vietnam Era veterans surveyed indicated that they had had some contact with the VA.[31]

These surveys also studied the helpfulness of the VA in advising or aiding the veteran. The Harris study found that over 50 percent of the total veterans responded negatively; however, for veterans separated less than one year, the response was highly positive.[32] This would indicate that the current outreach effort is having a positive impact. The second and third VA profiles also indicate this. In both profiles around 88 percent of those veterans who contacted the VA about education or training benefits found the service helpful. The educationally disadvantaged were less enthusiastic; approximately 71 to 74 percent found the services helpful.[33]

Non-VA Outreach and Assistance

The VA's capacity to inform and counsel veterans has been augmented by many other national, state, and local agencies. In many respects, the nationwide system of veterans assistance agencies and organizations that briefly flourished in the years following World War II was similar to the diverse national system of veterans assistance today. The Federal Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion's Retraining and Reemployment Administration contributed leadership and national coordination of services to the efforts of the VA, the U.S. Employment Service, the Selective Service System, and local and State agencies. Federal agencies were required to contribute representatives to local Veterans Service Committees in each community, some of which took the form "Community Veterans Centers" and "Community Advisory Service Centers."[34] Such centers provided educational, employment, and in some cases, psychological counseling. The national system in the post-World War II era was a network of cooperating public and private agencies but because of inconsistencies in funding, staffing, policy, etc., the system was fragmented.

The plethora of services as well as the inconsistencies and fragmentation still exist today. The traditional veterans organizations, the Red Cross, local agencies, college veterans clubs, educational institutions, and State and city governments have contributed to these efforts.

The national veterans service organizations and the Red Cross offer informational and counseling services similar to those they offered to World War II veterans. Veterans service organizations continue to provide hundreds of professionally trained service officers in each state as well as volunteer post service officers at local posts throughout the country who contact and counsel returning veterans in their areas. In many non-urban sections of the country, telephone and personal contact with veterans is possible only through the work of these organizations.

In addition to these older non-VA "outreach" services, recent years have seen the proliferation of dozens of local agencies, especially in urban areas, whose mission is assistance to and active recruitment of veterans seeking continued education. The emerging theme of these Vietnam Era "outreach" efforts is veterans self-help and personal peer counseling techniques. Examples of successful programs based on these concepts exist across the country, but results are not uniform and many are in constant financial jeopardy.

Veterans Education and Training Service (VETS) programs, college veterans groups, and many others have found that the disadvantaged Vietnam veteran may have developed personal insecurities as well as distrust of "the system" to such an extent that he is reachable only by another veteran who has had similar experiences. The well-known Seattle Veterans Action Center is an example of the success of extensive motivational counseling through the employment of Vietnam veterans as "paraprofessionals," backed by strong community and media support.

The Office of Economic Opportunity, through the VETS programs of the National League of Cities and U.S. Conference of Mayors, provided initial "seed money" for the establishment of veterans centers in ten cities. The objectives of these centers are: contacting and persuading disadvantaged veterans to take advantage of GI Bill educational benefits, providing part-time employment, and helping veterans adjust to school.

The Urban League, the National Puerto Rican Forum, and other minority-oriented organizations also employ the "peer concept" in their outreach activities. Moreover, these organizations, like the Red Cross and the veterans organizations, offer outreach programs of national or regional scope.

College veterans clubs and fraternities were among the first to use peer counseling and recruiting. The National Association of Concerned Veterans, Inc., founded in 1968, is an association of 150 college and community groups concerned with personally encouraging and assisting new veterans. A number of "community houses" and "half-way houses" have been established across the country to deal with the problem of orienting alienated veterans.

Some colleges and other post-secondary institutions, notably Webster College in St. Louis, Newark State College, Tennessee State University,

University of Oklahoma, Rutgers, and the University of California at Los Angeles, among others, have developed special admissions procedures, preparatory courses, and tutorial programs for Vietnam Era veterans. Many also successfully employ veterans as recruiters and counselors after they complete their own programs. The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges Program for Servicemen and Veterans provides participating institutions with advice and technical assistance in developing such programs for veterans. Through a project jointly sponsored by the AACJC and the American Legion, monthly separations lists are provided to member institutions for purposes of reaching and recruiting returning veterans.

Several states and cities have expanded their services for veterans from behind the desks of traditional departments and offices out into the streets by employing veterans as outreach personnel. Programs to Advance Veterans Education, now a part of the Pennsylvania Department of Education, began as a college veterans outreach group. PAVE now operates 71 peer counseling centers and holds regional "Education Fairs." PAVE reports that between October 1971 and September 1972, 42 percent of those discharged in PAVE areas were contacted by phone and 12 percent of those were given personal counseling.[35] Illinois, Washington, Wisconsin, and South Carolina have recently established outreach programs, and other states are planning similar projects.

Many of these efforts have only begun in the latter part of the Vietnam period. Due to varying degrees of funding and staffing they have had an uneven degree of success. Although the effects of these recent outreach efforts cannot be accurately assessed, in many cases they have provided an active, personalized assistance to veterans.

The VA's contact representatives or benefits counselors remain the chief agents for informing and aiding veterans at the local level. With the decrease in VA contact offices and personnel today, the personal nature of the information and recruitment effort cannot equal that of the post-World War II Era.

Summary

The outreach efforts of the VA have been successful in informing veterans, especially the educationally disadvantaged, that benefits are available. Some areas of the outreach program such as the Overseas Program, the Separation Point Program, the Mailing Program, the USVAC's, and the OJT Outreach, have been more successful in reaching Vietnam Era veterans than the mobile vans, itinerant point service, and toll-free telephone service. The majority of veterans have found the VA's aid and advice to be helpful.

Yet the Vietnam Era veterans' participation rate remains relatively low and this may, at least in part, be due to an inability of the outreach program to motivate them. One reason for this may be the psychological make-up of many returning Vietnam veterans. Psychological barriers, doubts, and suspicions may not be broached by group orientations, form letters, and telephone calls. As active as the Veterans Assistance Division is, its role remains primarily to inform the veteran of the available VA benefits and to assist him in applying for them. Only the counseling and social work efforts go beyond the informational stage to helping the veteran to deal with his problems and achieve his goals. These efforts are presently not extensive enough to be used by a significant percentage of eligible veterans. The non-VA outreach and counseling efforts demonstrate that a need for active motivational assistance exists. The problems in providing this type of assistance are accentuated by the limited geographical distribution of VA offices and the lack of clear directives for coordination of services at the local level.

Due to the lack of evaluations of contact activities during the World War II and Korean programs, and to the difference in benefit levels, the character of the veterans, social circumstances and other variables that affect participation, comparison of contact activities for the three GI Bill periods is difficult. The contact effort is less personal now than it was during the other two periods, especially World War II, although it appears to be more efficient. The VA, in its present outreach effort, has changed its policy to one that is significantly more active in attempting to reach the veteran.

Counseling the Veteran

At its inception in 1943 the VA counseling program was not only innovative but a major experiment in counseling. Public Law 346 had placed an unprecedented responsibility on the VA: to provide counseling and guidance to hundreds of thousands of veterans throughout the U.S., heterogeneous in age, educational level, mental and physical ability, interests, and experience. It also reflected a departure in national policy. Congress had overtly recognized "the potential contribution of the counseling function in the educational and occupational adjustment of adults"[36] and had provided substantial sums of money to make it available.

Vocational Advisement and Guidance Service

The services provided by the Vocational Advisement and Guidance Service began with an emphasis on vocational counseling, placement counseling, and educational guidance. "The basic techniques used in counseling the veteran were to make an individual survey, including testing and matching of occupational characteristics of the individual with the demands and other characteristics of occupations."[37] Vocational Advisors were required to have one year of graduate work with a minimum of 15 hours in psychology or vocational guidance, or its equivalent. Had the standards been higher, it would have been difficult to staff the program in so short a time.

Personal adjustment counseling was added to the service around 1946 as it became evident that emotional and personal adjustment were factors in vocational adjustment. Personal counseling was conceived as a separate service employing a Personal Counselor with adequate experience.

A major innovation of the program was to supply advisement and guidance services to VA hospitals. The program proved to be so successful that in 1950 the VA Department of Medicine and Surgery made it an integral part of the medical treatment.

Contract Guidance Centers

To meet the mushrooming demand for counseling at the end of World War II, the VA supplemented its services by forming contractual relationships with educational institutions. The Contract Guidance Center was "a new social invention." The purposes for this type of arrangement were:

1. To secure the best possible personnel to provide this service to veterans.
2. To assure that the Federal program would have as close a contact as possible with the veteran in his local community.
3. To encourage the creation and further development of community guidance centers available for all adults.[38]

The Counseling program was successful in meeting these goals. The VA contracted with 415 colleges and universities, approximately one out of every four institutions of higher learning in the U.S. A survey of 154 Guidance Centers by the American Council on Education concluded that "...it is apparent that testing and vocational counseling have received real impetus from the VA and that with minor modifications the program will continue when the VA contracts expire."[39]

The Early Program in Total

The early counseling program was a notable success. Numerous independent studies have found that the program was helpful to veterans and had a positive effect on the completion of training.

In March 1951, the Administrator of the VA appointed three professionals in the field of counseling to act as an Advisory Committee to the Advisement and Guidance Service. In their review of the counseling program they found that the counseling program met high professional standards.[40] But they also found several problems in the early advisement program:

> 1. The separation of counseling from education and training services imposed by VA regulations designed to interpret and implement the various laws has constituted a problem: these have taken from the counselor the important functions of implementation and follow-up.
> 2. The VA failed to evaluate the effectiveness of counseling...
> 3. Due to type of records that were kept and the stress of fact-finding the interviews sometimes tended to be interrogations. This has a detrimental effect on the interaction between the counselor and counselee.[41]

The Advisory Committee reviewed and recommended changes in the program that vastly altered the character of the counseling effort. Some of these changes were proposed to correct problems in the earlier program while others were designed to "broaden the nature" of the counseling program.

Transition Period, 1951-1956

Between 1951 and 1956 many changes occurred in the counseling program. Vocational and personal counseling were brought closer together. The name was changed to the Counseling Service to reflect this shift of orientation. In December 1952 a new position, the Counseling Psychologist, superseded and upgraded the older Personal Counselor position. A new manual was published in 1953 stressing communication over fact-finding and giving greater consideration to the counselee's perceptions. The records kept during an interview also underwent a major revision for the same purposes. The experience gained in the earlier period and the changes they brought benefited a great many of the Korean veterans who entered counseling.

1956 to Present

As the caseload decreased after 1956, the counseling effort again changed character. The staff underwent reductions as the Korean period ended. Policy changes in 1961 completed the integration of personal and vocational counseling so that they no longer had separate designations.

With the coming of the Vietnam period, the caseload began to increase. Yet the counseling program did not reach the volume experienced during the World War II or Korean periods. This may have been partially due to a change in the application form. Before 1970 a veteran could check a box on the application if he wanted counseling. In 1970 the box was removed although a clause referring to the availability of counseling remained in the finer print. The box is now back on the application, but calls for the veteran to fill in his telephone number, if he has one.

As of June 30, 1971 there were 236 Counseling Psychologists, 32 of whom were designated as Chiefs. The majority of these were stationed in the 57 regional offices. Counseling Psychologists are being stationed in the U.S. Veterans Assistance Centers to increase the availability of counseling and bring about a closer integration of the services provided to the veteran. There are 196 Contract Guidance Centers, 70 percent of which are located at colleges and universities.

Comparisons of the Three Periods

There has been a significant decline in percentage of veterans who have received counseling, VA and contract, under the GI Bill as is seen in Table 65.

Table 65: VETERANS COUNSELED UNDER THE GI BILLS

	Applications Received	Veterans Counseled	Percent of Applicants Counseled
World War II (PL 78-346)	10,255,485	1,327,749	12.95
Korean Conflict (PL 82-550)	2,974,544	304,200	10.23
Post-Korean Era (PL 89-358)	5,036,077	192,766	3.83
(Through FY 1973)			

Source: Office of Research and Statistics, DVB

There are no data available to distinguish the number of counseling cases that were required under VA regulations for changes of course. It is significant, however, that the highest rate of counseling occurs for World War II since there were no regulations requiring counseling until September 1, 1949. The participation rate in counseling for applicants through the end of FY 1949 was about 10 percent.

From the trends apparent in the counseling data for the World War II and Korean Conflict GI Bills, it appears that the number counseled under the present GI Bill will not increase substantially. As of June 1973, 85 months had passed since the passage of P.L. 89-358; 85 months after the passage of the World War II and Korean Conflict GI Bills 94.9 percent and 93.5 percent, respectively, of all the veterans to receive counseling had already been counseled.

The 85-month figure may still not give an accurate idea of counseling trends. Although the Korean and Vietnam periods were similar in the protracted rate of separation, most World War II veterans separated in a period of two years. This may be taken into consideration by using data on the average time since separation. As of June 1973, the average time since separation for Vietnam Era veterans was four years. In June 1950, the average time since separation for World War II veterans was 3.8 years and yet 85.7 percent of all veterans to be counseled had received counseling. Similarly, in June 1958, the average time since separation for Korean Conflict veterars was 3.6 years and the percentage of those already counseled was 84.3 percent. The data available did not permit analysis at the 4-year point for each period.

There were no data available on the number of counseling employees for the peak counseling years of the World War II and Korean periods. However, there were 333 VA counselors (178 Counseling Psychologists and 155 Vocational Advisors) employed in the Vocational Rehabilitation and Education program as of January 31, 1957. As of June 30, 1971, there were 236 Counseling Psychologists employed by the VA; however, this reduction was accompanied by an increased reliance on contract guidance centers.

The use made of contract guidance centers has fluctuated. The highest level of usage was during the World War II period. This dropped significantly for the Korean period but has risen during the present period.

Table 66: COUNSELING COMPLETED AT VA CONTRACT GUIDANCE CENTERS UNDER THE GI BILLS

	Total Veterans Counseled	Veterans Counseled at VA Guidance Center	Percent Counseled at VA Guidance Center
World War II (PL 78-346)	1,327,749	1,042,164	78.49
Korean Conflict (PL 82-550)	304,200	178,072*	58.54
Post-Korean Era (PL 89-358)	192,766	133,762	69.39
(Through FY 1973)			

Source: Office of Research and Statistics, DVB, and Counseling and Rehabilitation, DVB

* This figure includes a reasonable estimate for 5 of the total years involved. The reports for counseling veterans under the vocational rehabilitation program and GI Bill (Readjustment Program) were combined for FY 1957 through 19[illegible], so a deduced figure of 61,152 GI Bill cases was used for this period and included in the total.

It must be noted that the VA Counseling program has generally taken the major responsibility for counseling the disabled veteran.

During the World War II period nearly all the contract guidance centers were located at colleges and universities probably due to the availability of personnel at those institutions. There are no data for the Korean period but presently approximately 70 percent of the 196 guidance centers are located at institutions of higher learning. These guidance centers are usually located in areas of need where there is diminished accessibility to the regional offices.

Availability of Counseling Outside the VA

The statistical comparisons above must be viewed in light of the availability of counseling services to the public during the three periods.

During the period in which PL 346 was administered, vocational counseling and personal counseling were not as available or as accessible (due to prohibitive fees) as they are presently. A percentage of colleges and universities had such services. Also they were available through private practitioners. The only major job counseling effort was the U. S. Employment Service's. In CY 1946 alone 508,100 non-disabled veterans were counseled at over 1,700 local Employment Security Offices.[42] However, this counseling was not comparable to the VA counseling at the time.

The general availability of counseling today is far greater than during either of the earlier periods. Almost all schools have guidance counselors. Most colleges and universities have well staffed counseling centers. Community services have greatly increased. Yet it appears that veterans are not making use of these services. A recent VA study, still in draft form, reports that 7 percent of a sample of veterans separated from active duty between July 1970 and June 1971, received advice or help from a professional counselor, 3 percent received counseling at a VA facility, 2.5 percent at some other facility, and 1.5 percent at a facility not stated.[43]

Summary

It appears that the effort to counsel veterans has declined over the three periods. This is difficult to understand in light of the success of the World War II counseling effort. The Bradley Commission cited the results of a study that concluded that veterans receiving advisement were twice as likely to continue their training or education.[44]

The commission went on to say:

> "...This study indicates that if counseling service were provided to all veterans prior to entering training waste of money would be prevented ... While it is not possible to estimate the savings to the taxpayers due to this aspect of the program, it is reasonable to state that thousands of veterans were saved from failure and wasted years of effort."[45]

The Counseling and Rehabilitation service is presently taking steps to increase the availability of counseling by placing Counseling Psychologists in the USVAC's. This is more in line with the active role that the Veterans Assistance Division found necessary to reach the Vietnam veteran. Although this comes at a late point in the Vietnam period, it may prove effective in providing counseling to a greater percentage of veterans.

Chapter 12

ADMINISTRATION OF BENEFITS

Laws providing education benefits for veterans are implemented through the administration of major programs by the Veterans Administration. These programs are supplemented and supported by efforts of other Federal agencies, private veterans' service organizations and the State Governments.

A study of the administration of benefits must, therefore, include an examination of the organization and administrative problems within the VA, coordination between VA and other organizations, and problems stemming from divided administrative responsibility.

The Veterans Administration: Organization, Problems, Safeguards

Comparability of administrative efficiency over the three Conflict periods is difficult to determine because of the absence of data in certain critical areas, the changing state of the law which the VA has been charged with implementing, and the many variables such as political and social climate, level of veteran participation in programs, and leadership within the VA. However, it is possible, on the basis of studies conducted in the past and information available on current problems, to develop a reasonably clear picture of the administration of veterans' education and training benefits which acknowledges strengths and improvements over the years and at the same time recognizes recurring and unsolved problems.

Overview of the Administration of Veterans' Education Benefits

In 1956 the Bradley Commission wrote:

> "On balance, the positive accomplishments of the readjustment benefit program as a whole far outweigh its faults, costly and wasteful as these were."[1]

It appears that administrative problems and abuses in the education benefits program were more serious and widespread in the World War II period than in the two subsequent Conflict periods.

The original GI Bill (P.L.346) was drafted and passed with the purpose of rewarding veterans, easing an anticipated post-war unemployment crisis, and rectifying a depletion of educated citizens in the nation.[2] The aim was to encourage broad participation by veterans, and little attention was given to the need for safeguards.[3]

With the liberalized provisions of P.L.268 in 1945, participation rates increased dramatically, creating serious administrative problems.

> "In great part, problems of tremendous growth underlay the difficulty in achieving economical andorderly administration of the program. The agency had just 12 months to ready itself for the unexpected avalanche of applications which descended on it in 1945. Plans had to be made, staff recruited and trained, schools and training establishments found and indoctrincated, and a nation-wide organization, supported by required services, set up in that short time."[4]

Three sets of problems developed in the operation of programs in the World War II period. Many veterans were pursuing avocational and recreational courses with no apparent objective, and there was widespread changing of courses by veterans. This drew into question the whole purpose of the education program as a "readjustment" benefit. Also, many schools were springing up mainly to profit by enrolling veterans and receiving federal funds,and there were many instances of such schools overcharging veterans. Finally, the State agencies responsible for approving schools and courses lacked the funds, personnel, and standards to do a responsible job of supervising, inspecting and monitoring the practices of private proprietary schools.

The VA has made progress in correcting specific operational inefficiencies through the Korean and Vietnam Conflict periods. This progress parallels the development of statutory safeguards and changes in the organizational structure of the VA.

The Korean GI Bill (P.L.550) contained stronger safeguards against abuses in the programs than did the original GI Bill.[5] The Korean Bill was of major significance for the administration of education benefits.

> "It should be said that there is general agreement that the Korean...program has been much better administered than was the case during most of the P.L.346 period."[6]

Under the Korean Bill, the enrolling veteran had to demonstrate a definite educational or vocational objective, he could not enroll in avocational or recreational courses, and he was entitled to only one change of course before VA authorization was required.

As an attempted safeguard against overcharges and abuses by profit schools, P.L.550 provided that the educational assistance allowance would be paid directly to the veteran as a partial stipend, with no direct tuition payment to be made to the school by the VA.

In 1950, P. L. 610 provided for VA reimbursement of State Approving Agencies for their work of supervision, inspection and approval of institutions. This provision attempted to correct the staffing inadequacies and lack of sufficient resources which had marked the approval function in the World War II period. P.L. 550 (passed in 1952) went further by establishing certain standards for approval in an effort to bring some uniformity to the system of approval.

The basic provisions of P.L.550 were retained in the 1966 Vietnam Era GI Bill (P.L.358). When considered in light of the amending legislation in 1972 (P.L.540), it appears that in general, the administration of education benefits continues to improve in terms of safeguarding against abuses.

Development and Organization of VA

The organizational history of VA is highlighted by developments reflecting both functional changes based on operating experience and amendatory legislation establishing safeguards for the education benefit program.

This history is complicated by two factors. First, the legislation which VA has been charged with implementing has continually changed in a sporadic fashion. Amendments to the GI Bill, as well as VA regulations responding to them, have typically been attempts to resolve specific problems in the benefits programs. A 1970 VA Management Engineering Study commented on this problem:

> "The present legislation under which veterans' benefits are paid is a patchwork accretion of individual acts and amendments thereto enacted over a span of almost eighty years...Existing veterans' benefits legislation does not lend itself to efficient administration...It is subject to constant changes and additions which require corresponding changes in VA administration and control of benefits payments. VA policies and procedures, therefore, tend to show the same pattern of patchwork accretions as the governing legislation they implement...In spite of the numerous changes in legislation, and consequently in VA administration of veterans benefits, there is no indication that any serious overview of the veterans' benefits system as a whole has ever been approached with a view to the development and administration of a more uniform system of veterans' benefits."[7]

In the context of this changing legislation, many administrative policy decisions seem to have been made on a short-term basis, with a focus on expected veteran population and anticipated workloads.

The second factor which complicates the organizational history is the continuing modification and transfer of administrative functions within the VA, much of which is not reflected in the formal charts or official designations of the agency.

A comprehensive historical account of all the significant developments and changes in the organization of the VA is beyond the scope of this report. The sketch presented here simply illustrates some of the trends, directions, and primarry contributing factors of the organizational development.

Early History of the VA

In July 1930, Congress passed an Act (46 Stat. 1016; 38 U.S.C.11) authorizing the President to consolidate and coordinate governmental activities affecting veterans. In accordance with this act, the VA was established as an independent agency under the President by Executive Order No.5398 dated July 21, 1930. The Veterans' Bureau, the Bureau of Pensions, and the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers were consolidated in the VA.

In 1956, the Bradley Commission stated:

> "From the very begining, a paramount problem in the Va has been found in the effort to fit dissimilar government activities into an economical and efficient unit." 8

Prior to 1944, the VA's activities were primarily in the areas of insurance and mediciene. With the influx of veterans under the World War II GI Bill, the type of organization which had been established in 1930 proved to be unable to meet the demands of the workload.

Commenting on the impact of the decision to centralize responsibility for veterans affairs in the VA, the Bradley Commission stated:

> Centralization...created some serious problems... The problems of administration and coordination within the Veterans Administration were increased by adding

> heavy new responsibilities to an agency already heavily burdened..."[9]

In short, while the decision to consolidate service to veterans in a single agency was intended to increase efficiency and coordination in the administrtion of the program benefits, the early impact of the decision was quite unexpected.

Development of the VA organization has continued to be shaped by two basic concerns which were embedded in the original decision to consolidate: to administer diverse programs of great magnitude, and to do so efficiently and economically. Hundreds of administrative decisions have been made over the years in an attempt to tighten up the administration of benefits and to eliminate waste without restricting the generosity of benefits as mandated by law. One consequence of this dual concern has been a lack of continuity in the administrative procedures, staffing patterns and functions.

The "Functional" Model - 1930 to 1953

In terms of basic organization plan, the VA operated from its inception in 1930 until 1953 according to one model, with several modifications. That basic plan has been referred to by the VA as the "functional model." A VA brochure, Reorganization of Veterans Administration - Background and Solution, published in 1953, provides a detailed analysis of this period. The essence of the functional model was that "each key executive was in charge of a particular function throughout the organization."[10]

The Bradley Commission recounts:

> "From its beginnings in 1930 until World War II the Veterans Administration was organized with its nationwide network of field stations set up to report directly to the Administrator. Five principal staff executives and a multiplicity of staff units were located at Washington headquarters. They were to advise the Administrator and also furnish technical

> guidance to field operations. The volume of their 'advice' to the field increased with the passage of time and eventually was tantamount to multiple technical direction from Washington."[11]

In short, the Va faced the vastly increased workload of the World War II period with an organizational structure which was easily overloaded. That structure lacked the requisite flexibility and clear lines of authority and accountability to be able to cope with the demands made upon it.

The "Geographic " Model 1945 to 1949

In 1945 the branch office structure was introduced to the organization of VA in an effort to expedite the handling of increased workloads. The Bradley Commission indicated the outlines of the plan:

> "Thirteen branch offices were established to exercise intermediate supervisory control over the 97 veterans hospitals and the 53 Regional Offices. These were 13 'miniature Veterans Administrations,' a new echelon of command vested with the authority to make on-the-spot decisions to speed action. The change was advanced as a positive move to make VA service to the individual more directly at the 'hometown level'."[12]

The VA brochure refers to this change to the branch office structure as the "geographic" plan, and describes it as being "superimposed on the functional model which continued to be the basic plan."[13] In other words, while an inadequacy of lines of authority within the VA was recognized, the basic plan was retained, with an "ad hoc" modification introduced to cope with the increased activity of the World War II years.

The branch office structure was a temporary expedient, and it was eliminated in 1949 when the VA anticipated that its workload was about to level off. The previous functional model of organization was retained, essentially intact. It was apparently felt that with the decreased workload, the functional plan provided the most economical use of personnel. The decision appears to have been made primarily on the pasis of anticipated workloads, rather than according to any plan to develop an orgaization capable of handling increased activity so that the problems which had required the 1945 change could be avoided in the future.[14]

The "Product-Line" Model 1954 to 1973

In the early years of the 1950's increased attention was given to the organizational problems of the VA. Several detailed management surveys and studies of the organization were conducted by private firms and by the VA itself. The firm of Booz-Allen-Hamilton, The Trundle Engineering Company, the Hoover Commission, and the Commission's Task Force all issued reports with recommendations pertinent to VA administrative components.

It is clear that these reports influenced subsequent organizational changes of the VA. The basic conclusion in all of the reports was that the VA organizational model was outmoded and incapable of handling the demands being placed on it. The VA document, Reorganization of the Veterans Administration - Background and Solution, details the significant points of the various studies and describes their common recommendation that the VA be changed according to a "product-line" model of organization.

Organization by product-line was a significant departure in organization theory of the VA, and can be seen as a genuine response to the current legislative concern to eliminate waste and abuse in the Korean period. The product-line model "recognizes the product or program as fundamental and accordingly provides an orgaization pattern built around the operational requirements of that product or program."[15] This is the theoretical model upon which the departmental structure of the VA has developed from 1954 to the present. It was hoped that the model would provide enough flexibility and clear lines of authority to enable efficient program operation even in periods of increased workload.

Highlights of Organization Changes From 1953 to 1973

In 1953 the vocational rehabilitation and education component of the VA organization was one of twelve "Line Offices." This is illustrative of the functional model referred to above.

In 1954 the Department of Veterans' Benefits (DVB) was established as one of three Departments, pursuant to recommendations favoring the product-line model. In DVB there was established a Vocational Rehabilitation and Education Service which contained the same basic components as the 1953 office of Vocational Rehabilitation and Education. The significance of the 1954 change was not in the addition of any sections, but in the general organizational approach -- departments built on the product-line model.

From 1955 to 1962, several changes were made within DVB at the Central office level in an effort to maximize efficiency by eliminating overlapping responsibilities. These changes took the form of consolidations and tranfers of function within the Vocational Rehabilitation and Education Service.

In 1964 the Vocational Rehabilitation and Education Service was combined with the Compensation and Pension Service. This consolidation took effect on the Regional Office level also, where "Adjudication Divisions" were established to perform processing of all claims.

With the passage of the Vietnam Era GI Bill in 1966 (P.L.358), VA responded, in part, by instituting within the Compensation, Pension and Education Service a new position of "Executive Assistant for Education" to concentrate on the education function within the Service. Evidently the purpose of the 1966 change was not accomplished as planned since in 1969 the position was transferred and upgraded within the Service in an effort to "regain adequate control" in the education program.[16] These changes reflect a recognition by the VA that the education function required special attention within the Compensation, Pension and Education Service.

In 1972 the Compensation, Pension and Education Service was broken up, and the Education and Rehabilitation Service was established as a separate Service. The VA rationale for this move was stated in this way:

> "The key factor in the reorganization is the establishment of a single-purpose organization-- a separate service-- for the formulation and development of Education and Rehabilitation program policies, plans, and procedures..."[17]

This explanation clearly reflects the theory of the product-line model which emerged out of the intensive management studies of the early 1950's. It appears that the 1972 change was a major shift from the direction of the changes leading to the consolidation in 1964.

The organizational changes which have affected the education components of the VA over the years can by seen as a series of consolidations, separations and transfers of functions, creations and elimination of positions, and returns to previous structures. The changes represent attempts to maximize efficiency while administering programs of enormous magnitude. This history suggests that as legislation and policy have changed so has the organization; and the resulting lack of basic organizational and administrative continuity may explain in part some of the administrative problems which have persisted over the years. These persistent problems must be considered in light of their current setting.

Education Program Analysis and Policy Making

> "It is essential that problems of the past and of the present be examined so that their causes may be avoided in future through the establishment of clear and consistent basic policies of operation."[18]

Two aspects of program-policy analysis and evaluation warrant special attention: Data collection and review by the VA, and policy-making on education matters within the VA.

Data Collection and Analysis

Ever since the World War II period, VA has been criticized for failing to collect and analyze data for purposes of a systematic assessment of program effectiveness. In 1952, Booz-Allen-Hamilton stated in its report:

> "An important and basic part of the vocational rehabilitation and education program has been neglected. There is no real measure of the programs' effectiveness... No one has any real idea of how much and in what way the education programs have actually benefitted veterans."[19]

In 1956 the Bradley Commission commented, "...the data gathered relate largely to administrative operations and do not give a basis for gauging needs or for analyzing the effectiveness of the programs."[20]

The VA continues to be primarily interested in data on veteran enrollments and exhaustion of entitlement. It does not collect data on completion rates of veterans in the various programs. It does not record and compile information on veterans' complaints in a systematic way. It apparently does not collect data on socioeconomic status of veterans as they enter and complete programs of training, or data on actual employment obtained as it relates to training received. Since 1972 the VA has conducted a special longitudinal study which it believes in several years will provide useful data on course completion and socioeconomic characteristics of the veteran population.

In all fairness, it must be pointed out that the VA concept of its mission comes into play on this issue. Interviews of the agency's personnel disclose the widespread and strongly held view that the VA does collect what data is necessary for providing service to veterans. The view seems to be that, given the limited resources for administering the programs, priority must be given to "serving veterans" rather than "purifying statistics." While there can be no quarrel with the VA's emphasis on serving veterans, the dichotomy implied by the argument may be too sharply drawn. It is not self-evident that the focus on serving veterans precludes such information gathering as will enable careful assessment of the actual effectiveness of the programs. On the contrary, it seems that improvement of the service function requires such data collection and analysis.

Education Policy-Making Within the VA

The VA has been criticized from the beginning of the World War II period for failing to secure employees with proper education background, and for failing to coordinate its policy-making with other agencies, particulary the U.S. Office of Education.

While recognizing that "the task of assembling in a short period of time sufficient trained personnel to operate the vocational rehabilitation and education service of the VA was tremendous," the 1951 House Select Committee to Investigate the Education and Training Program under the GI Bill concluded that there had been little progress in that regard over the six years of the program. The Report stated:

> "Through all echelons of the VA framework the committee has found personnel lacking the education and experience necessary to qualify them as administrators of an educational program."[21]

That same report criticized the VA for failing to seek advice and to coordinate its efforts with "established educational groups."[22] While some coordination has been sought through the establishment of the Advisory Committee (mandated by law) and the Federal Interagency Committee on EDucation (FICE), there is little evidence of real progress in this matter.

As recently as 1972, this same concern was expressed by the National Advisory Council On Extension and Continuing Education:

> "Many of the decisions which had to be made originally in interpreting the GI Bill were highly legal and technical in nature...It would seem reasonable to assume that most of the legal 'bugs' have been shaken out of the system... Nonetheless, adjudicators continue to handle questions affecting the administration of education and training benefits...The absence of enough individuals with education experience who have either routine or periodic input into the administration of the education benefits program is a serious problem. This problem is aggravated by the fact that few education associations are involved in the planning and policy apparatus of the VA - to the extent that such apparatus exists... There appears to be minimum input into the formulation of VA education and training policies and practices by individuals and groups outside the VA."[23]

The Processing of Education Claims at VA Regional Offices

The actual delivery of benefits to veterans involves the processing function at VA Regional Offices, where applications from veterans are received, claims folders are established, adjudication occurs, and payments of education allowances are authorized. It is at this level the Central Office directives must be implemented, and, in the final analysis, the policies of the VA must be made to work.

The 1972 organization change separated Education from Compensation and Pension at the Central Office only. As a result, no sparate processing function concentrates on education claims, but rather the adjudication divisions of Regional Offices are responsible for all processing. Operationally, Regional Offices often "cross-train" personnel to attain maximum flexibility in use personnel.

Processing includes several stages - mail room processing, correspondence clerks, adjudication clerks, adjudicators, and input clerks. According to VA Central Office personnel, the fundamental problem with processing is "fragmentation of function" - "people just don't have the big picture." Claims folders, established by the correspondence clerks, are moved "in mass mode" through the various stages, and there is often a real problem in locating a particular veteran's folder when a problem arises which requires individual attention.

Problem of Late Payments

In the main, the VA has served most veterans well, processing their education applications and claims efficiently, and enabling prompt disbursement of educational assistance allowances to veteran recipients. However, there have always been instances of operational inefficiency associated with the processing function.

It is not possible to determine comparability over the three Conflict periods of this aspect of administration of benefits. It appears that the VA has never, and does not presently, compile and maintain statistical records on the percentage of payments which are delayed in processing and made late. Further, fluctuating workloads over the years, and varying productivity and performance levels of different Regional Offices preclude a precise and accurate comparability assessment. Several points can be made, however, on the basis of available evidence.

A VA Management Engineering Study in 1971, carried out at ten Regional Offices, determined that 85 percent of the veterans' complaints reviewed concerned late receipt of payment. This suggests that aspects of veterans' contact with the VA which the veterans feel are unacceptable most often involves "inappropriate actions in the processing stages."[24]

Interviews with VA personnel at both the Central Office and Regional Office levels indicate that in many Regional Offices as many as 8 to 10 percent of the education checks may be issued late because of a variety of problems in processing.

Persons in organizations serving veterans feel that "when the word gets out" that their checks may arrive late, many veterans (especially disadvantaged veterans) are discouraged from participating in the education benefits program.

Full responsibility for all delays in payments cannot be charged to the VA since some contributing factors are beyond the agency's control. It appears that a persistent problem over the years has been the failure of some schools to promptly certify the enrolled veterans as students of their schools. Since a certificate of enrollment is necessary for a veteran to receive payment of his educational assistance allowance, such action by schools causes delays in processing. Data are not available to allow a statement of comparability over the three Conflict periods, since the VA does not keep records on tardiness of reporting by schools.

Improvements in the Processing Function

Several changes have been made or are currently under review by the VA which are intended to reduce delays in processing and to facilitate and improve service to veterans.

Effective May 1973, the "Application for Program of Education or Training" and the "Enrollment Certification" are attached in a single form. This is a simplification of the previous "two-step" procedure by which a veteran would obtain his certificate of eligibility from the VA and then enroll and be certified as a student by the school. It is anticipated that the simplification will reduce delays in both steps and improve service to veterans.

As a result of experiments conducted in recent months, a new "team approach" or "unit processing mode" has been proposed which would consolidate several of the stages of processing at the Regional Offices. It is hoped that such an approach would decrease the fragmentation which currently exists, and provide for better consultation on individual veterans' problems. The proposal is currently under review in the VA.

It is contemplated by the VA that by 1975 there will be an on-line computer system with terminals in all Regional Offices involved with processing, and that this will enable maximum efficiency in the processing function. An "information retrieval" system is planned whereby it will be possible to "reply to most inquiries without the delay caused when a veteran's folder must be located in order to check the paper records."[25] The general concept of the computer has been approved, and the VA is currently working in the design effort; but it remains possible that the project could be abandoned for reasons of cost.

Advance Payment Program

A veteran who has been accepted by a school may apply for advance payment of his education allowance; effective August 1, 1973 the advance payment checks are being sent by the VA. In effect, two monthly allowances are paid in advance so that a down payment on tuition can be made with minimum burden on the veteran enrollee. It is expected that the late payment problem will be largely eliminated for those veterans participating in the program, and it is hoped that "the word will get out" about this program, thus encouraging participation in education programs by disadvantaged veterans.

Several problems which were unanticipated by the VA have emerged in the early stages of this program. First, it appears that several schools are refusing to participate out of reluctance to receive the checks directly and become liable for their loss. Second, it appears that many veterans are reluctant to participate since they fear that when the checks are sent to the schools, no refund will be forthcoming to the veteran. Personnel at the Baltimore Regional Office asserted that the fear is unfounded, but apparently widespread -- instead of the expected two-thirds participation rate, as of July 26, 1973, only about one-third of the veterans who could have received the advance payment had applied for it.

It appears that these new or still pending changes in administrative procedures are progressive moves toward better service to veterans. It is too early, of course, to assess their effectiveness. A problem has arisen with respect to these progressive directives by the Central Office. Charged with implementing the directives and instructions, Regional Office personnel often encounter complications caused by the many changes. It appears that many of the instructions create new problems in processing even as they attempt to resolve the existing problems.

Coordination with Other Organizations and Agencies

Efficiency in the administration of veterans' education benefits is affected by coordination of various groups and agencies which are involved in serving veterans. In 1952, Booz-Allen stated:

> The program needs the cooperation of (1) veterans, (2) training establishments and institutions, (3) suppliers of materials and services, (4) other governmental agencies, State and local as well as Federal; and (5) labor unions, trade associations, and other such civic groups...
>
> In the face of these needs, little evidence is shown of formulating a positive, constructive basic policy governing outside relations for vocational rehabilitation and education... Rather, the policy has been to sit back and weather storms of criticism in the hope that the flurry would subside, as generally it has.
>
> "However, each charge has left its scars..."

There is no standard formula by which coordination between VA and other groups can be evaluated. The need for closely coordinated efforts varies with the type of problem, the extent of overlapping missions of the service groups, and the availability of resources.

It is clear, however, that the VA has only developed a limited constructive basic for coordination with outside groups. Its approach to coordination has basically been characterized by an, ad hoc approach to sloving problems as they arise.

There is some evidence that VA has increased its effort to coordinate with other veterans service groups in recent years. Therefore, a consideration of the efficeincey of administration of benefits by the VA calls for an examination of some aspects of its working relationship with outside groups. Some areas such as State and local governments and educational associations have been excluded due to a lack of significant data.

The Education Community

Public Law 89-358, Section 1792 calls for an advisory committee to advise the Administrator on programmatic and administrative matters and to formulate corrective and amendatory legislation.[26] This committee, under several different titles, dates back to the first GI Bill.

Only three months after the passage of P.L. 346 the Administrator formed the Administrator's Special Committee on Vocational Rehabilitation, Education and Training Problems. The four members were Administrative officials at four major universities. They met in early September 1944 and immediately recommended to expand the committee to represent small institutions, vocational and pbulic school training and junior colleges. Throughout the World War II period the Committee dealt basically with legislative recommendations and administrative problems in dealing with educational institutions.

P.L. 550 added the Commissioner of Education and the Director, Bureau of Apprenticeship, Department of Labor as ex-officio members to the committee. Another expansion in 1953 added representatives of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations. In 1952 the name was changed to the Administrator's Vocational Rehabilitation and Education Advisory Committee. Harvey Higley, the new Administrator, also changed the committee's role to one of reviewing pending legislation. The Bradley Commission in 1956, stated that, "One of the promising signs of sounder administration is the apparently stronger role in policy formulation now played by the Administrator's advisory committee on education, in contrast to the secondary place and continual overruling of its predecessors."[27] Around this time an arrangement was worked out whereby the committee could report directly to appropriate committees in Congress. The committee had reported directly to the Administrator.

As the Korean period was drawing to a close the committee began focusing on the effects of the education and training programs. Much effort was spent on proposing, designing, and attempting to find funding for a study of the effectiveness of these programs. The committee was not successful in obtaining the funds for the study.

During the Vietnam period the committee has met infrequently. In 1972 the National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education described the present status of the committee as "more inactive than active" and added:

> "Its membership is not specified by law, nor its size. It presently has eleven members, although it periodically has had more or fewer members. Vacancies, therefore, can never be said to exist. Members are selected by the Administrator, who is not an official member of the Committee. The Committee members in turn elect a Chairman from among their own ranks.
>
> In theory, at least, the responsiblity is to aid the Administrator in the formulation of vocational rehabilitation and education priorities and policies. This responsibility is difficult to implement, however, when the Committee meets as infrequently, as it does (about twice a year), with no working agenda, no stated mission, and at the discretion of the Administrator or Chairman."[28]

The 1972 Amendments to the GI Bill added veteran representatives of World War II, the Korean conflict era, the post Korean conflict era, and the Vietnam Era to the committee membership. The committee's title was changed in 1972 to the Administrators' Education and Rehabilitation Advisory Committee, in line with an administrative reorganization. Its first major task was to arrange for the present study, as described in Sect. 413 of P.L. 92-540.

It appears that the committee's most effective periods were during the Korean era and the post World War II period. Although the committee was more active during the post World War II period, it was the perception of the Bradley, Commission that had a greater influence on decision-making during the Korean period. Although the Vietnam period the committee has been relatively inactive. It appears to be headed for a more vital role since it was reorganized early in 1973. Table details this activity level.

Table 67

	Number of Years	Number of Meetings	Total Number of Days Met
1944-1951	8	31	73
1952-1959	8	24	32
1960-1965	6	7	7
1966- July 1973	7 1/2	11	12

Although the Advisory Committee may have played an important role, at least during the Korean period, it has not been an effective coordinating mechanism with the educational community.

There has been an Educational Liaison in the Adjudication Division of the Regional Offices during all three periods. His major responsibilities have been two-fold: (1) To act as a liaison between the VA and the state education authorities on matters relating to the inspection, approval, and supervision of educational institutions and training establishments and (2) to answer questions and aid educational institutions in understanding regulations and procedures, filing forms, and other administrative matters. In this latter capacity, Educational Liaisons in some of the Regional Offices have been organizing regional meetings for educational personnel who deal with the processing of VA forms or other administrative matters pertaining to veterans.

The contact between the Educational Liaison and the educational institutions has fluctuated over the three periods. During the World War II period there was a greater degree of interaction due to the high level of questions and complaints incurred by the direct payment of tuition to the institution. This dropped during the Korean period. The level of interaction is presently rising due to programs such as Free Entitlement, Advance Payment, and Veterans' Cost-of Instruction.

Basically the Educational Liaison serves to solve problems and facilitate administrative matters.

Department Of Defense. Historically, the VA and the Department of Defense have maintained a working relationship to the benefit of the veteran. The VA is provided by DOD with lists of separatees, containing considerable demographic information, enabling the VA to more effectively aid the individual veteran.

The VA has, since 1970, been engaged in a program of cooperation with DOD to assure the effective operation of Project Transition and the Predischarge Education Program (PREP) in counseling and training servicemen prior to their return to civilian life. The VA provides assistance to both programs in the form of professional counseling to the serviceman on training or education in addition to seeking releases from duty for servicemen to pursue at least half of the time required for a full-time program. It is the responsiblity of DOD, and specifically the base education officer, to reach and motivate those veterans who may benefit from training under PREP or TRANSITION.

The Inter-service and Agency Coordinating Committee on In-service Veterans Educational Benefits was authorized by Section 1697A of Title 38 U.S. Code and to coordinate VA and DOD's efforts. It began operation at the beginning of 1973. The main function of this committee is to identify problems and issues involving the PREP. Results of this recent coordination between VA and DOD (Interagency Coordinating Committee) have yielded evaluative suggestions for the improvement of PREP.

Office Of Education. Relations between the VA and the office of Education have been minimal although they are presently increasing. A report of a House Select Committee in 1951 stated that:

> "There is little evidence which indicates that the Veterans Administration sought the advice and assistance of established educational groups in organizing the Vocational Rehabilitation and Education Service and establishing its policy. Infact, officials of the United States Office of Education have stated that they have no knowledge of any contacts or inquires from the Veterans Administration which would utilize the facilities or experience of that agency."[29]

P.L. 82-550 wrote into law a greater cooperation between the VA and the office of Education. It made the Commissioner of Education an ex-officio member of the Administrator's Advisory Committee. He also became responsible for establishing a list of accrediting agencies and helping the VA to work with State agencies in the approval of courses, institutions, and establishments. OE and VA personnel jointly reviewed State plans for course and institutional approval but this type of cooperation was limited because of Congress' failure to appropriate funds to carry out such programs. The Bradley Commission concluded in 1956 that, ". . .the rather large role for the office in the operation of P.L.550 apparently contemplated by the Congress has not come about."[30]

During the Vietnam period, the communication and cooperation between the two agencies has increased. With the establishment in 1973 of the Veterans Program Unit in the Office of Education a greater degree of informal communciation exists between the two agencies. The OE and VA worked cooperatively in FY 1971 and FY 1972 in the Overseas Team Representatives. They also worked jointly in developing the regulations for the Veterans Cost-of-Instruction program, administered by OE. Representatives of the OE and VA sit on many of the subcomittees and task forces of the Federal Interagency Committee on Education. At the regional level the VA and OE exchange information pamphlets and other materials to distribute to interested veterans. Also the Commissioner of Education has a seat on the VA's Administrator's Advisory Committee but sends a designated representative.

Department Of Labor. The coordination between the Department of Labor and the VA appears to be continuing and extensive at the national and local level. Between 1944 and 1947 the VA and the Employment Service of the Department of Labor maintained an informal relationship yet coordinated their counseling, training and placement services. During this period the VA was a major contributor to the development of the Occupational Outlook Handbook.

Cooperation extended further than just the Handbook. In 1947 a formal agreement was drawn up between the Employment Service and VA. This agreement was reaffirmed and expanded in 1955 and 1967. The agreements cover the referral of veterans, the exchange of local labor market and training opportunity information, and the coordination of efforts to aid in the counseling, training, and placement of disabled veterans.

All of these are statements or agreements made at an administrative level. It was impossible to judge how effective this coordination was at a local level. There has also been a liaison between the VA and Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, of the Department of Labor. From 1952 to 1972 the Director of the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training was an ex-officio member of the Administrator's Advisory Committee. The 1972 Amendments to the P.L. 386 change the representatives to the Administrator, Manpower Administration, Department of Labor, who sends a designated representative. The VA has also worked with the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training on the approval of Federal agency on-the-job training programs.

Other. Under P.L. 346 and P.L. 550, the Bradley Commission attempted to review the area of coordination with other Federal agencies and concluded that:

"Federal interdepartmental coordination of veterans' matters

> exists to some extent but is not clearly defined and examples are difficult to locate. Numerous briefing sessions conducted for the Commission staff by various Federal departments (including Defense, Labor, VA, Health, Education, and Welfare) produced no evidence of systematic coordination and virtually no mention of the subject."[31]

The Commission did go on to cite several examples that were basically ad hoc procedures to resolve specific problems. The limited coordination of the VA Rating Schedule Board with the Department of Defense on technical provisions of the schedule was one example. The Coordinator of Veterans' Affairs on the White House staff, which had been eliminated prior to 1956, was another. Effective coordination was found in the relationship with the Department of Health, Education and Welfare in the area of exchange of medical information, special services to incapacitated beneficiaries, informing potential beneficiaries and implementing P.L. 83-761. The cooperation between the VA and the Corps of Engineers, Department of the Army proved "invaluable" for the hospital construction program.

Presently the same type of ad hoc problem-oriented linkages exist. Additions to these efforts have been made in the form of actural formal agreements and establishment of interagency committees.

The cooperation between the VA and the Rehabilitation Services Administration, Social Rehabilitation Service, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is one of these more formal agreements. This is an expansion of the effective coordination effort with the Department of Health, Education and Welfare cited by the Commission. A formal agreement was signed in 1946, 1956, and again in 1971.

VA representatives are also on committees such as the Committee on Minority Business in the Department of Commerce, the Presidents' Committee on the Employment of the Handicapped, and a number of the subcommittees and task forces of the Federal Interagency Committee on Education plus the Committee itself. Limited time prevented any investigation into the VA role on these committees and their effectiveness as coordinating mechanisms.

The VA also has a working relationship with a variety of Federal Agencies that focus on specific problems. In approving courses in foreign schools the VA works with the Department of State Foreign Service, the Office of Education's Comparative Education Branch, and many others such as foreign ministries of education, U.S. medical residency boards,etc. The VA has worked with the Environmental Protection Agency to develop training programs for waste water treatment plant operators so as to insure veteran eligibility. The Federal Aviation Administration and the VA exchange information on flight schools, flight training, and FAA regulations and standards. The VA cooperates with the Department of Agriculture in disseminating information on educational assistance for persons pursuing a farm cooperative training program. The VA participates in the coordinated enforcement procedures of the prohibition against discrimination. Lastly the VA and Small Business Administration have cooperatively worked on implementing the liberalization of the criteria under which a veteran may qualify for an SBA loan.

These linkages in both working relationships and committee representation are numerically greater than during the World War II or Korean period.

An exceptional instance of coordination is the VA's role in the President's Jobs for Veterans Program. As a member of the government steering committee the VA helped coordinate the efforts of the Federal Agencies. The VA also added its own efforts to the program. In coordination with the Department of Labor, the VA initiated a mailing to veterans who had been collecting unemployment compensation for 3 months or more encouraging them to use their benefits. The VA also began its OJT Outreach program to develop training opportunities for veterans. The OJT Outreach effort has been well coordinated with the local Employment Service offices. In addition the VA placed extra emphasis on the participation in and sponsoring of Job Marts and Community Assistance programs by USVAC's and Regional Offices.

Although the VA actively participated in this cooperative effort it was upon the direction and leadership of the Nixon Administration and in reaction to an unemployment problem of almost crisis proportion. The Administration has not given the same priority and leadership in the area of education and training and the VA has not taken the initiative to organize and coordinate the efforts in this area. The VA's role in the Jobs For Vets effort does, however, demonstrate its capability and capacity to actively coordinate effectively with other agencies.

Local Organizations

The VA has had good local level coordination with the Employment Service and the veterans service organizations. Relations with the Employment Service were detailed previously.

The nature and extent of cooperation between the VA and the service organizations at local, regional, and national levels has been virtually unchanged since the World War II period. The continuing close liason between the VA and the veterans groups over the years has undoubtedly facilitated the provision of benefits to veterans of all three conflict periods. The number of individual service officers and organizations recognized by the VA, however, has not grown since the World War II period.

Service organizations which are "recognized" and individual service officers who are "accredited" by the VA are extended every possible form of assistance. The VA pays tuition and expenses for the training of service officers. It provides up-to-date copies of laws, regulations, circulars and other relevant publications, plus copies of relevant information to representatives handling veterans claims. It even provides free office space to service organizations at VA offices. Service organization representatives are often invited to attedn VA briefings as well as counselor training sessions. VA representatives often attend service organization meetings and conferences to provide information and to exchange ideas.

Service organizations are also provided with monthly DOD separations lists as well as special "outreach" lists of veterans who have not completed high school. Local posts utilize these lists in their efforts to inform veterans of their educational and other benefits. Except for these organizations coordination at the local level has been at the discretion of the field office and has varied from office to office to office. There are no standard operating procedures, no guide lines and no national leadership to stimulate coordination on the regional and local levels.

Some policy statements have come out of the Central Office to "explore the potential" for making USVAC services available to Neighborhood Centers or "establish communication" with officials of the Concentrated Employment Program. They do not represent a clear and direct policy towards coordination but a vague directive lost into a constant flow of circulars.

It was not possible to evaluate the degree of coordination that actually existed or exists at the local level. It is clear however, that with the plethora of community and service programs that exist at the local level, it would be beneficial to the veteran and the VA to have a clear and active policy on coordinating services.

Summary

There are few clear cut patterns in the area of coordination. The VA has built working cooperative relationships with some agencies and organizaations. With some of the Federal Agencies that have less interface with the VA, the working relationship meets the needs of the common concerns. Yet in other areas such as with educational institutions or local level community services, the effort appears placative. There are also examples of decline in the coordination effort. The VA's role in the Jobs For Vets effort does, however, demonstrate its capability and capacity to actively coordinate effectively with other agencies.

Overall, the VA continues to place major emphasis on ad hoc problem-oriented coordination. This type of coordination is reactive, usually in response to a specific problem situation. The lack of a "positive, constructive basic policy" that is cited by Booz-Allen-Hamilton, still continues. This is most evident with the lack of a clear directive for contact and coordination with local level programs which stands in vivid contrast to the coordination with the traditional veterans organizations. The VA has responded to many of the earlier criticisms of the lack of coordination and placed representatives on a variety of interagency committees. How effective these are as a form of coordination and influence on VA policy is difficult to judge. The lines of communication are at least formally open. These linkages are a move towards a constructive policy.

In general, the VA has increased its effort to coordinate with other groups serving veterans. A more active, concerted effort, though, would greatly increase the effectiveness of services rendered to veterans and more fully utilize the existing wealth of resources at the national, regional, and local levels.

State Approving Agencies. After the passage of the World War II GI Bill, various pieces of legislation increased the accessibility of educational opportunities to veterans by liberalizing the eligibility requirements and expanding the definition of allowable activities. Increased accessibility, however, brought forth an increase in institutions, without a corresponding system of quality control. The State Approving Agencies, designated to assess the educational quality of courses in institutions and establishments and approve them for veterans, were confronted by a lack of funds and standards. This led to abuses, particularly among proprietary institutions below the college level. To correct this situation, standards and requirements were legislated and sufficient funds were allocated to reimburse the State Approving Agencies for their services.

In 1973, there were 6,594 schools (5,036 of which were proprietary institutions) which offered occupational programs and were approved by the State Approving Agencies for veterans.[32] In this same year, $10.6 million was available to reimburse the State Approving Agencies for their services.[33] However, there is no way to determine whether or not this money was wisely spent. The VA, prohibited from exerting any control over the Approving Agencies, has done very little to even compile information that would allow an accurate assessment of the performance of the State Approving Agencies.

The U.S. Office of Education, responsible for determining which institutions are eligible for Federal funds for education, does not rely on the approvals of State Approving Agencies for determining eligibility.[34] This suggests that the quality of the performance of State Approving Agencies is neither high nor uniformly reliable.

History

When P.L. 346 was passed on June, 1944 it had been designed to provide education or training that was impeded, delayed, interrupted or interfered with, or a refresher course to those who served in the Armed Forces during World War II. Underlying the bill was the fundamental proposition set forth by the Armed Forces Committee on Post-War Educational Opportunities for Service Personnel in 1943,

> "...The primary purpose of any educational arrangements which we may recommend should be to meet a national need growing out of the aggregate educational shortages which are being created by the war...We have regarded any benefits which may be extended to the individuals in the process as incidental."[35]

This legislation was seen as a mechanism for providing readjustment benefits to veterans and to meet a national shortage created by the war. It was not to provide educational benefits to all veterans; consequently, the legislation had a narrow scope of benefits and opportunities. In that the law was designed to aid a small number of veterans, many of the provisions were loosely defined and lacked a rigid set of requirements and standards. An example of this can be seen through the definition of the types of course and school that a veteran could select:

> "...any eligible person...is entitled to such course of education or training, full time or...in part-time training, as he may elect, and at any approved educational or training institution at which he chooses to enroll, whether or not located in the State in which he resides, which will accept or retain him as a student or trainee in any field or branch of knowledge which such institution finds him qualified to undertake or pursue..."[36]

This provision in P.L. 346 gave a veteran the maximum freedom to choose what kind of education or training he desired and where he chose to pursue it. The only major requirement was that the institution or establishment be one that was approved.

The Approving Function

House Committee P.L. No. 210, from the Administrator of Veterans' Affairs, 1950, defined an approved institution as:

> "...one which has been approved by the appropriate agency of the State, or the Administrator, as qualified and equipped to furnish education or training to such eligible veterans who may elect to enroll therein..."[37]

The Congress, through this provision recognized the right of the States to evaluate and supervise educational institutions and establishments within their borders and gave the States the primary responsibility for the approval of schools and courses for veterans. Thus, the Administrator of Veterans' Affairs, immediately after the passage of the bill wrote to the governor of each State and territory and requested that an agency be designated to approve educational and training institutions and courses for veterans.[38] As stated in P.L. 346 the Administrator was to:

> "...secure from the appropriate agency of each State a list of the educational and training institutions (including industrial establishments) within such jurisdiction, which are qualified and equipped to furnish education or training..." [39]

In the majority of States, the governor designated the State Department of Education to carry out the approving functions. The remaining States designated these functions to other boards and commissions.

In 1945, P.L. 190 was passed and considerably liberalized the GI Bill by extending the period of eligibility for benefits, and liberalized conditions of enlistment and service.[40] This had the effect of enabling more veterans to take advantage of educational benefits, and their numbers quickly increased. Later that year P.L. 268 which substantially amended several provisions of the original GI Bill was passed. The most striking feature of this bill was the removal of the requirement to show that one's education was interrupted by service. Moreover, it removed the age limit and extended the course initiation and terminiation dates. It also authorized short intensive course of less than thirty weeks.[41] All of these features opened up the opportunities for profit, since it became apparent that hundreds and thousands of veterans would now be eligible for educational benefits. Almost overnight, thousands of institutions sprung up (see Tables 68 and 69).

Immediately abuses increased, particularly in the profit-making institutions. House Report No. 210 from the Administrator of Veterans' Affairs, 1950, and the report of the General Accounting Office to the House Committee on Veterans' Affairs, 1951 discuss in detail abuses which characterized the operation of the program in profit schools. Some of these abuses were:

> "1. Inaccuracies in cost and attendance data.
> 2. Excessive payments for subsistence.
> 3. Establishment of dummy corporations.
> 4. Duplication in the issuance of supplies.
> 5. Promotional schemes to increase enrollment.
> 6. Attempts to obtain excessive profits.
> 7. Unethical influence of Veterans' Administration and State officials."[42]

The State approving agencies, originally certain that they would be able to handle the approval process successfully, found themselves overwhelmed. In a discussion in the Bradley Commission Report,

> "...some concern was expressed about "opening up" the law for fear fly-by-night shcools would be established. It was generally agreed, however, that the State approval (approving) agencies could and would be established. (However,) the effect of the forces brought to bear on the State Approval Agencies was such as to make it impossible for all but a few of them to do a satisfactory job of fulfilling their function as set forth in P.L. 346." (The term approval and approving are used interchangeably throughout the literature: however, the correct term as set forth in P.L. 550 and subsequent legislation is State Approving Agency.)[43]

Problems Confronting the State Approving Agencies

In addition to the number of institutions that were established and their abuses, there were several factors that added to the problems confronting the

Table 68: NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS ON THE APPPROVED LIST ON OCTOBER 31, 1949 WHICH WERE ESTABLISHED SUBSEQUENT TO JUNE 22, 1944

Type of institution	Year of first approval					
	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	[1] 1949
Profit (total)	35	[illegible]	1,5[illegible]	1,812	973	462
Institutions of higher learning [2]	0	1	11	9	9	2
Technical institutes	3	29	102	193	109	62
Business schools	7	17	67	51	73	33
Secondary and elementary	0	1	6	2	6	5
Vocational and trade	16	84	708	596	417	326
Flight schools	9	92	1,266	957	360	62
Public and private nonprofit (total)	70	127	848	607	217	141
Institutions of higher learning [2]	5	10	81	54	43	29
Technical institutes	0	9	79	35	11	5
Business schools	0	0	4	2	1	0
Secondary and elementary	46	[illegible]	[illegible]	256	89	72
Vocational and trade	19	18	149	260	72	34
Flight schools	0	0	2	0	1	1

[1] To October 31.
[2] Includes colleges, universities, professional and technical schools, junior colleges, teachers colleges, and normal schools, and hospitals offering residence training to physicians.

Source: Report on Education and Training Under the Servicemen's Readjustment Act, as Amended, House Committee Print No. 210 81st Congress, 2nd Session, page 47.

Table 69: NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS ON APPROVED LIST OCTOBER 31, 1949, BY TYPE AND PROFIT STATUS AND PERIOD DURING WHICH FIRST APPROVED

Type of institution	Total profit and nonprofit	Nonprofit			Profit					
		Total	Established prior to June 22, 1944	Established subsequent to June 22, 1944	Total		Established prior to June 22, 1944		Established subsequent to June 22, 1944	
					Number	Percent of all educational institutions	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	40,797	31,843	29,826	2,017	8,964	21.9	3,310	37.1	5,636	62.9
Institutions of higher learning [1]	3,252	3,109	2,894	215	143	4.4	109	76.2	34	23.8
Technical institutions	2,166	985	892	93	1,181	54.5	634	53.7	547	46.3
Business schools	1,259	60	57	3	1,199	95.2	1,097	84.7	102	15.3
Secondary and elementary	35,806	35,612	35,130	482	194	.7	177	90.9	17	9.1
Vocational and trade	4,802	1,679	679	1,000	3,123	65.0	1,051	33.7	2,072	66.3
Flight schools	3,141	7	3	4	3,134	99.8	351	11.2	2,783	88.8

[1] Includes colleges, universities, professional and technical schools, junior colleges, teachers colleges, and normal schools, and hospitals offering residence training to physicians. Institutions of higher learning classified as profit include bar review schools, music schools, hospitals giving residency training to veteran physicians, and other institutions offering specialized training at the college level.

Source: Report on Education and Training under the Servicemen's Readjustment Act, as Amended, House Committee Print No. 210 81st Congress, 2nd Session, page 46.

State Approving Agencies:

Lack of Funds. P.L. 346 did not provide funds for these agencies. Some states chose to fund their agencies while others did not. The immediate result of the lack of funds was that some states moved slowly to perform their functions. According to the Bradley Commission Report:

> "In general, they felt that since this was a Federal program for veterans and because Federal funds were not provided to the states, let the Federal Government's agent--The Veterans' Administration--worry about it."[44]

Some states, then established standards and criteria, while others gave blanket approval to all schools, without even an initial inspection.[45]

Lack of Criteria for Approval and Minimum Standards. P.L. 346 did not establish criteria for approval of schools by State Approving Agencies: this resulted in little uniformity among State Approving Agencies in the development of policies and procedures for approval of schools. Some states published standards and criteria, while others did not. A school might receive approval in one state but would be unacceptale in another state.[46]

New Legislation

With the recognition of thes problems came new legislation. P.L. 679, approved in 1946, established criteria for approval of on-the-job training establishments and authorized the Administrator to reimburse State Agencies for expenses incurred in carrying out this function.[47] P.L. 377, approved in 1947, involved the setting up of allowances in tuition rates to the State or local agencies for supervision of agricultural training.[48] P.L. 610, approved in 1950, provided for the VA to reimburse State Agencies for inspection and supervision of proprietary profit schools, defined avocational and recreational courses and provided minimum attendance requirements for veterans pursuing trade or technical courses below the college level.[49] P.L. 550 in the Korean program put forth detailed provisions of standards for approval of courses. Among these provisions as listed in the Bradley Commission Report were:

> "1. Prohibition of avocational and recreational courses.
> 2. Prohibition of courses for veterans if the course has not been in operation for two years.
> 3. Prohibition of courses offered by profit schools unless 15 percent of the enrollees are nonveterans.
> 4. Detailed criteria for the approval of accredited and nonaccredited courses.
> 5. Definition of a full-time course." [50]

Divided Administrative Authority

All of the legislation set forth fairly rigid standards and criteria for State Approving Agencies. However, rules and regulations are of little significance if not vigorously enforced.

P.L. 346 made special efforts to protect the rights of States to assess the quality of education in institutions within their borders. In fact, P.L. 346 as a amended states:

> "The Veterans Administration is expressly prohibited by law from exercising any control or supervision over a State Approval Agency or an educational institution."[51]

Even though this gave the VA no enforcement powers, it nevertheless had to rely upon the State agency's decisions on the quality of education as well as spend sizable sums of money for agencies over which the VA basically had no control. Moreover, there was still major concern over the quality of nonaccredited courses below the college level.

> "the law contemplates that States will withdraw approval where such action is warranted and notify the Veterans Administration promptly of any action taken which affects the program. However, there is no provision for enforcement of such actions by the Federal Government...The intent of Congress to maintain States' control over the educational

> systems in their jurisdiction is understandable. However, it is recognized that Congress clearly holds the Veterans Administration responsible for the custodianship and proper use of Federal funds expended for the veterans' educational program. As the situation now stands, the Veterans Administration does not have adequate authority to discharge this responsibility promptly and properly."[52]

This statement was made in a Management Survey of Activities of the VA by the firm of Booz-Allen-Hamilton in 1952. VA Regulations from 1966 give the VA authority to "...determine whether the State Approving Agencies under the terms of contract or reimbursement agreements are complying with the standards and provisions of the law.[53] However, there is little evidence to suggest that the VA can determine what the State Approving Agencies are doing, or that the VA can be assured of the quality of education particularly in proprietary profit programs and courses. To understand why this is true, it is necessary to explain the State Approving system as it functions today, for the Vietnam era veteran.

State Approving Agencies Today

The State Approving Agencies are responsible for insuring the quality of education of courses taken by veterans. These approving agencies are designated by the governors of each state; if there are two state agencies, the responsibility of approving institutional training and education usually is given to the State Department of Education, while apprenticeship and other on-the-job training programs are given to the State Department of Labor.[54] There were, in Fiscal Year 1973, 71 agencies under contract with the VA. These agencies are reimbursed for their services. These services are based on a formula which calls for an average of one visit to an Institution of Higher Learning, and 2 1/2 visits to all other institutions and programs annually. A breakdown of estimated and actual costs shows a Fiscal Year 1973 estimated cost of $10.6 million for these agencies (see Table 70).

Table 70: ESTIMATED AND ACTUAL PAYMENTS TO STATE APPROVING AGENCIES, 1947-55, 1966-73

Fiscal Year Ending June 30	Estimated	Actual
1947	NA	$2,638,090
1948	NA	4,579,420
1949	NA	4,586,749
1950	NA	3,181,031
1951	NA	2,401,956
1952	NA	2,318,483
1953	NA	2,043,053
1954	NA	2,327,210
1955	NA	2,457,552
1966	$ 190,000	262,875
1967	1,515,000	1,079,413
1968	1,700,000	1,898,893
1969	2,900,000	2,817,561
1970	4,200,000	3,709,339
1971	5,800,000	4,839,951
1972	8,000,000	6,387,238
1973	10,665,000	8,853,983

Source: Compiled from text table of Bradley Commission, Part IX (B), p. 21 and data from Office of Research and Statistics, VA, August 2, 1973.

The State approving system is confusing and complicated, because each State functions autonomously and independently of any national standards. In addition, the States decide whether there will be one agency to approve courses, or several, and what their duties and obligations are. Each State performs two functions. It licenses schools to operate (or exempts them from licensing), and approves schools for veterans. In some States, such as Maryland, the licensing and approval standards are the same for all institutions: in order for a school to operate it must meet the same standards that have been set for veterans. Other states, schools are licensed using one set of criteria, and approval based on other criteria. Licensing may merely require an application and fee for a license, which then becomes the determination of whether or not a school may operate, regardless of any educational qualifications.[55]

The approval system operates loosely within the context of private accreditation. In order to approve courses for veterans, the States may rely on accreditation associations. It is up to the State to determine which and how many accreditation associations it wishes to rely upon.[56] The State also can decide not to rely upon an accreditation assocation at all. If a school is accredited, and its accreditation is accepted by the State Agency, it comes under Section 1775 of Title 38, U.S.Code, Veterans' Benefits, 1973. This approval requires the accredited institution to transmit copies of its bulletin to the State Agency and to keep adequate progress records of veterans. Nonaccredited courses are subject to Section 1776 which sets forth criteria to be met for courses: these criteria are oriented towards attendance verification and record keeping, and leave most of the quality control decisions entirely up to the States.

Yet most of the criteria concerning educational quality are so vague that they require broad interpretation by the agencies that are supposed to be guided by the criteria. For instance, one criterion for approval reads:

> "The courses, curriculum, and instruction are consistent in quality, content and length with similar courses in public schools and other private schools in the State, with recognized accepted standards."[57]

But, these recognized, accepted standards can be those minimal standards that the State used for licensing, which may be no more than the requirement of a licensing fee. It is this system that has been under attack by the U.S. Office of Education which questions the State Approval System as to its supervision and assessment of institutions, for veterans and for non-veterans. In an information bulletin from the Accreditation and Institutional Eligibility staff, Office of Education, the statement is made that:

> "In a few States practically no public control is exercised over the establishment of institutions with respect to their educational legitimacy. In such states almost any person or group can set up and operate an educational enterprise, granting diplomas and degrees of all kinds without any standards regarding the availability of resources and equipment for a sound program of instruction."[58]

With the States able to broadly interpret the law, the criteria do not appear to be an accurate measure of the performance of State Approving Agencies. Nor is there any evidence that the criteria are applied uniformly throughout the States. The National Assocation of State Approving Agencies, organized in 1948, "to bring together the sovereign states in a concentrated effort to improve avenues of providing better education and training for eligible veterans"[59] is a private, voluntary membership organization. It tries to provide a framework within which States can work together to "...develop improved standards which would be generally uniform throughout the country and...develop enough courage to enforce compliance."[60] These statements from a 1961 historical review of the National Association of State Approving Agencies speak to the fact that within the organization, there are approving agencies that have not met their standards: however, it is not a regulatory agency.

Since the criteria set forth in the law allowed broad interpretation, and since there is no agency or coordinating body to apply the criteria uniformly, it is difficult to measure the performance of the State Approving Agencies. This derives from the relationship between the VA and the State Approving Agencies.

The Role of the Veterans Administration

The VA is prohibited from interfering with educational quality. However, the State Approving Agencies range widely in their enforcement powers, diligence and capability. The result is a lack of control and also a lack of knowledge, of evaluation, of data, of assurance that veterans are getting fa value for their time and money. The VA is not prohibited from collecting any information that could be an indicator of performance. It is stated in Title 38, U.S.Code, Veterans' Benefits, 1973 that:

> "Each State Approving Agency shall furnish the Administrator with a current list of educational institutions specifying courses which it has approved, and in addition to such list it shall furnish such other information to the Administrator as it and the Administrator may determine to be necessary to carry out the purposes of this chapter...Each State Approving Agency shall notify the Administrator of the disapproval of any course previously approved and shall set forth the reasons for such disapproval."[61]

There is, at the present time, no published nationwide list of schools or courses that have been approved, or schools that have lost their approval.[62] All of these directives have been implemented on a State wide level, where the regional offices of the VA keep files and lists received from the State Approving Agencies. Thus, in order to find out how many and what schools have been approved and disapproved for what reasons,[63] it would be necessary to contact each regional office for this information. Since the Central Office of the VA does not have a consolidated list of approved schools or schools that have lost their approval, it is difficult to determine whether or not the regional offices have implemented this statute.

Another useful source of information would be the compilation of complaints against institutions of problems under the aegis of the approving agencies. Again, this is handled on the Regional Office level. Complaints that come into the Central Office or the Regional Offices are referred to the Approving Agencies, which are adequately handled.[64] This kind of information could be particularly helpful indetermining whether a particular agency was functioning properly to assure the quality of education in an institution. A lack of knowledge precludes a knowledgeable assessment of this.

The VA has maintained that there is no reason for them to keep this information, since it is not their responsibility to measure the performance of State Approving Agencies. Yet, the VA allocated $10.6 million in Fiscal Year 1973 to reimburse the State Approving Agencies to determine the quality of education that a veteran receives and whether this education served to meet the needs of veterans. A 1951 House Select Committee to Investigate Educational and Training Program Under the GI Bill reported that:

> "It is well established that any governmental agency has a primary and implicit duty, when disbursing tax money, to supervise the use of those funds in a fashion which will insure that the money is wisely and economically spent for the purpose Congress intended. This duty is always present regardless of the conditions."[65]

This statement was made to reflect a problem present in 1951, but in 1973 the same situation exists. There is no way to determine whether the VA has insured that the money used to reimburse the State Approving Agencies was wisely and exonomically spent. Moreover, the VA warns students to check on schools, particularly vocational and trade schools, as to their refund policies and placement of graduates; The Federal Trade Commission issues similar warnings, and the U.S. Office of Education does not accept the approval of State Approving Agencies. In short, there remains more than a suspicion that the State Approving Agencies are not an effective means of insuring the quality of educational performance that is necessary to protect the veteran.

NOTES

To improve readability, several frequently cited works in this report are referred to by their popularized or shortened names rather than their complete titles, as shown below:

Bradley Commission Report	Report of the President's Commission on Veteran's Pensions, 1956
Committee Print No. 210	Report on Education and Training Under the Servicemen's Readjustment Act, as Amended, House Committee Print No. 210, 1950
Booz-Allen Report	House Committee Print No. 322, 1952 Management Survey of Activities of the Veterans Administration
1951 GAO Survey	General Accounting Office Report of Survey--Veterans Education and Training Programs, 1951
National Task Force	National Task Force on Education and the Vietnam Era Veteran, 1972

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1. Benefit Levels in Veterans Programs, (1956), House Committee Print No. 243, 84th Congress, 2nd session, p. 9. (Bradley Commission Report).

CHAPTER 5

1. Veterans Administration, Readjustment Profile for Recently Separated Vietnam Veterans, Unpublished Draft, 1973.
2. U. S. Bureau of the Budget, A Survey of Socially and Economically Disadvantaged Vietnam Era Veterans, 1969.

   This study was based on a sample drawn from veterans whose residences could be identified as being located in disadvantaged areas according to FHA guidelines.
3. Bradley Commission, 1956 Staff Report IV, pg. 101.
4. Bureau of the Census, 1969 Census of Population, Veterans in the United States, 1960, December 14, 1962.

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5. Wilma T. Donahue and Clark Tibbits, "College and University Procedures in the Reorientation of Veterans," Annals of the American Academy, May 1945.

6. Nicholas M. McKnight, "They Know What They Want," School and Society, June 29, 1946, p. 452.

7. Leo P. Crespi, "The Veteran -- A Myth," Public Opinion Quarterly, Fall 1946.

8. "Mind of the Ex-GI," New Republic, April 28, 1947, (no author), pg. 20.

9. Alden J. Halloran, "Comparison of World War II, Korean, and Vietnam Prisoners of War," presented at the Leslie Chapel Memorial Symposium on Prisoners of War and their Psychological Problems, September 3, 1969.

10. Marc J. Musser, "Chief Medical Director's Letter" (to Directors of VA Hospitals, etc.), December 22, 1970.

11. Veterans Administration, Readjustment Profile of Recently Separated Veterans (unpublished draft), June 1973.

12. Gordon A. Braatz, et. al., "The Young Psychiatric Patriot: A Comparison of Three Eras of Conflict." Presented at the 15th Annual Conference, VA Cooperative Studies in Psychiatry, Houston, Texas, April 1970.

13. Mary S. Harper, Montrose, New York, UAH -- "The Young Veteran Vis-A-Vis the Veteran of Previous Wars Inference for Assessing the Adequacy of VA Rehabilitation Programs," (updated).

14. Harold Chorny, et, al, "A Proposal for the Treatment of Vietnam Era Veterans," UAH, East Orange, New Jersey, March 4, 1970.

15. Charles A. Stenger, "The Psychology of the Vietnam Veteran and Contemporary Times," May 14, 1972.

16. B. Drummond Ayres, Jr., "The Vietnam Veteran: Silent, Perplexed, Unnoticed," November 8, 1970.

17. Albert J. Glass, in The Psychology and Physiology of Stress, Peter J. Bourne, Ed., New York, 1969, p. xxo.

18. Murray Polner, No Victory Parades, New York, 1971, p. 154.

19. Robert J. Lifton, "The Sears of Vietnam," Commonweal, February 20, 1970, pp. 554-556.

20. Peter G. Bourne, Men, Stress and Vietnam, Boston, 1970, p. 42.

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21. Chaim Shatam, as quoted in "The Vietnam Veteran," Murray Polner, Commonweal, March 10, 1972, p. 13.

22. Statement of Dr. Robert J. Lifton, in Hearings Before the Senate Subcommittee on Labor and Public Welfare, 91st Congress on Examination of the problems of veterans wounded in Vietnam, Washington, GPO, 1970, pp. 495-496.

23. Mervin D. Field (Field Research Corporation), "Value of College Education Losing Weight with Public," Los Angeles Times, July 3, 1973.

CHAPTER 6

1. DVB IB, 24-73-3 Veterans Benefits Under Current Educational Programs, Appendix Table 21.

2. Readjustment Profile, Veterans Administration, June 1973, Table 10.

3. Ibid., Table 22.

4. Bureau of the Budget, A Survey of Socially and Educationally Disadvantaged Vietnam Era Veterans, November, 1969.

5. Ibid., Table 28.

6. Ibid., p. 19.

7. Stern, Sol, "When the Black GI Comes Home from Vietnam," New York Times Magazine, May 24, 1968.

8. Kirschner Associates, Inc., National Evaluation of Manpower Services for Veterans, Volume II, October 1972.

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11 Feldman, Stuart F., "Today's GI Bill," in Reveille, Volume I, No. 1, October 1972.

12. DVB IB 24-73-3.

13. Ibid., (text), p.99.

14. Berman, Sheldon, ETS/VA Study, Counseling and Outreach, (see Table , p).

15. Readjustment Profile, op. cit., Appendix Table 12.

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16. National Urban League. Olive, Lewis C., Military and Veterans Affairs Program, January 1973, p. 1.

17. Veterans Administration, Two Years of Outreach, pp. 22-23, op. cit.; Readjustment Profile, Appendix Table 20, February 1972 (unpublished); Readjustment Profile, Appendix Table 12, June 1973.

18. Olive, Lewis C., Report to the Rockefeller Foundation on the Military and Veterans Affairs Project of the National Urban League (draft version), May 1973, p. 4.

19. Veterans Administration, Two Years of Outreach, op. cit.

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1. E.A. Suchman, et. al., "Attitudes Toward the Korean War," Public Opinion Quarterly, Summer 1953.

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3. Louis Harris and Associates. A Study of the Problems Facing Vietnam Era Veterans: Their Readjustment to Civilian Life, October 1971, p. 11.

4. Ibid., p. 9.

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6. American Legion National Membership Record -- 1920-1972, issued by Membership and Post Activities Section, The American Legion.

7. R. G. Minott, Peerless Patriots, Publics Affairs Press, Washington, D. C., 1962, p. 103.

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9. Sam Stavisky, "Where Do Veterans Stand Today?", Annals of the American Academy, Apring 1948, p. 128.

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15. For example, George K. Pratt, Soldier to Civilian, New York, 1944, p. 127.

16. R. B. Pitkin, "How the First GI Bill of Rights Was Written," American Legion Magazine, January-February 1969.

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19. American Legion National Convention Resolution 22, October 7, 1965.

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24. Robert Redden, Associate Study for the American Legion Magazine, 1973.

25. Nathan Semmel and Milton Lehman, "The 52-20 Club Tells Its Own Story," Saturday Evening Post, March 22, 1947.

26. Mary Whalen, Comparison of Benefits for Vietnam Veterans with Benefits for Veterans of Previous Wars, Congressional Research Service, Washington, D. C., June 13, 1972.

27. Kendrick Lee, War Veterans in Civil Life, Washington, 1946, p. 473.

28. American Legion Legislative Bulletin, May 1946.

29. Director of War Mobilization and Reconversion, The Veteran and Higher Education, A Report to the President, May 20, 1946, p. 17.

30. Department of Labor, Manpower Report of the President, 1973, p. 34.

31. Department of Labor, Manpower Report of the President, 1972, p. 58.

32. Compiled from State Veterans Laws, prepared for the House Veterans' Affairs Committee, GPO, Washington, D. C., Jnauary 2, 1973.

CHAPTER 8

1. While data on rank, length of service, etc., could not be obtained, staff of the Human Resources Research Organization indicated that in their opinion, a high percentage were career servicemen. In addition, analysis of data provided by the Office of Research and Statistics DVB, showed that 32 percent are over 30 years old, indicating that they are likely to be career servicemen.

2. Veterans Administration, Readjustment Profile of Recently Separated Vietnam Veterans, (unpublished draft), 1973.

3. Korean and WW II figures taken from IB 22-3 March 26, 1958, DVB Chart XIII, p. 20; Vietnam figures from Readjustment Profile, op. cit.

4. Digest of Educational Statistics, National Center for Educational Statistics, 1971, Table 90, p. 68.

5. Educational Benefits Available for Returning Vietnam Era Veterans, Hearings before the Senate Veterans Affairs Committee, March 23, 1972, p. 506.

6. Computed from Table 2, Data on Vietnam Era Veterans, 1972, Reports and Statistics Service, Veterans Administration.

7. Ibid.

8. According to the Bureau of Adult, Vocational, and Technical Education of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare enrollments in vocational education have increased from 2,012,931 in 1945 to 11,602,144 in 1972. While these figures include secondary vocational training, they indicate an increasing trend in enrollment in vocational education since 1945.

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10. Computed from data provided by Office of Research and Statistics, DVB and Digest of Educational Statistics, op. cit., Table 82, p. 62.

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15. Digest of Educational Statistics, op. cit., p. 70.

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16. Ibid.

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2. Paragraph 3(a), Part VIII, Title II, Public Law 346 As Amended, 78th Congress.

3. Paragraph 6(b), Part VIII, Title II, Public Law 346 As Amended, 78th Congress.

4. Veterans' Benefits, Senate Committee Print No. 1, 1973, Sec. 1788, Subchapter II, Chapter 36, Part III.

5. Palmer, Charles, Statement read before the Subcommittee on Education and Training, Committee on Veterans' Affairs, U. S. House of Representatives, July 26, 1973, p. 9.

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7. Ibid., p.8.

8. Senate Committee Print No. 1, op. cit.

9. Based on personal correspondence from John Davis, Dean of Student Affairs, Ashville-Buncombe Technical Institute, July 12, 1973.

10. Ibid.

11. House Committee Print No. 210, p. 76.

12. Section 1631 (c) (1), Subchapter IV, Chapter 33, Title 38, U. S. Code, Change 12.

13. Statement by Celia Porter, telephone conversation, August 13, 1973.

14. "Study of Causes of Overpayments," Management Engineering Study, Office of Management and Evaluation, Veterans Administration, April 1970, p. 33.

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16. Celia Porter, op. cit.

17. *Management Engineering Study*, op. cit., p. 34

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19. Ibid.

20. Written Response from Education and Rehabilitation Service, VA, July 19, 1973.

21. Section 21:4203, VA Regulations 14203, op. cit.

22. Response from Andrew Thornton, VA, August 1, 1973.

23. Interview with Cornelius McQuade, VA Regional Office, August 1, 1973.

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33. General Accounting Office, Report to the Congress, "Most Veterans Not Completing Correspondence Courses -- More Guidance Needed From the Veterans Administration," B-114859, March 1972, p. 12.

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37. VA, DVB Information Bulletin 22-3, March 26, 1958.

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39. The President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions, 1956, op. cit., p. 42.

40. Ibid., p. 114.

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54. Levitan, Sar and Zickler, Joyce, Swords Into Plowshares, Olympus Publishing Company, Salt Lake City, Utah, 1973, p. 56.

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67. Ibid., pp. 46-47.

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2. Ibid.

3. Ibid., p. 4.

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CHAPTER 11

1. Booz-Allen Report, Management Survey of Activities of the Veterans Administration, Washington: GPO, 1952, p. 29.

2. Handbook for Veterans Administration Contact Representatives, Department of Veterans Benefits, Veterans Administration, Washington, GPO, March 1, 1971, p. i.

3. Contact Manual, Washington: GPO, September 1, 1954, p. 15.

4. The title Contact Representative was changed to Veterans Benefits Counselor in 1972. The Veterans Benefits Counselor serves an informational role and should not be confused with the professional vocational and personal counseling of the Counseling Psychologists in the Vocational Counseling, Training and Adjustment Service, and the Counseling Service or the Vocational Advisors, Vocational Rehabilitation Specialists, and the Training Officers of the Vocational Advisement and Guidance Section which preceded (VCTA). Counseling, when discussed in this report, will refer strictly to professional counseling.

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6. Veterans Administration, Two Years of Outreach 1968-1970: A Report from the Administrator of Veterans Affairs, Washington: GPO, June 1970, p. 1.

7. Statistics exist on the number of personal contacts, telephone calls, counter contacts, correspondence prepared, forms prepared, and applications prepared. There are numerous difficulties in using these data for comparisons. Some of the data exist only for certain years. The data do not distinguish the period of service of the veteran. The 1953, 1954 and 1955 Annual Reports do give the percentage of personal contact that involved Korean veterans. For some of the data there is a percentage breakdown by the type of inquiry, i.e., education and training, loans, etc. These data were found to be too scattered and ambiguous to be used for an accurate evaluation.

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EDUCATIONAL BENEFITS
GI BILL
Chapter 34 USC

	W.W. II	KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN
1. Basic Law	PL 346, 78th Congress	PL 550, 82nd Congress	PL 358, 89th Congress
2. Effective Date	June 22, 1944	August 20, 1952	June 1, 1966
3. Basic Service Period	Sept. 16, 1940 - July 25, 1947	June 27, 1950 - Jan. 31, 1955	February 1, 1955 - open ended
4. Service Requirement			
a. Veteran Minimum unless released for S/C disability	90 days	90 days	181 days
b. Serviceman	not eligible	not eligible	181 days
5. Basic Entitlement	1 year plus active duty time	1½ times active duty time	1½ times active duty time (18 mos. that satisfy active duty requirement earns 36 mos. entitlement)
6. Maximum Basic Entitlement	48 months	36 months	36 mos. plus time to complete high school or to complete required refresher, remedial or deficiency courses

Appendix A-1

EDUCATIONAL BENEFITS
- GI Bill

(continued)

	W.W. II	KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN
11. Period of Eligibility	9 years	8 years	8 years
12. Allowance (see table for complete chart)			
a. Basic Assistance - Full-time - school	$50 - 1944 65 - 1946 75 - 1948	$110	$100 - 6/1/66 130 - 10/1/67 175 - 2/1/70 220 - 10/1/72
b. Tuition, fees, books, and supplies	Actual up to $500 for ordinary school year	No	No
c. Statutory ceiling - allowance plus earnings (monthly)	8/8/46 $175 if no dependents, $200 if dependents 4/1/48 $210 if no dependents, $270 if one dependent, $290 if 2 or more dependents	Job training only $310	None

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EDUCATIONAL BENEFIT:
GI Bill
(continued)

	W.W. II	KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN
13 Vocational Counseling	provided on request	same	same
14. Changes of Program Permitted	before commencement cut-off one optional change to different field other changes with counseling	one change	one optional - additionals with VA counseling
15. Avocational and Recreational Courses	permitted 6/22/44 not permitted 6/30/48	not permitted	not permitted
16. Approval Limitations			
a. Period of operations	none 6/22/44 1 year 8/24/49 with exceptions	2 years, with exceptions	2 years, with exceptions
b. Non-vet enrollment requirement (pvt-non-accredited)	none	15%	15%
c. Job	none 6/22/44 stated in PL 679, 79th Cong. 8/8/46	stated in law	stated in law

Appendix A-1

EDUCATIONAL BENEFITS
GI BILL
(continued)

	W.W. II	KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN
17. Elementary and High School			
a. Entitlement Charge	yes	yes	No
b. Full-time	25 clock hours net of instruction	25 clock hours net of instruction	25 clock hours net of instruction -or- 4 units per year
c. Maximum Absence Per Year	30 days	30 days	30 days
18. Farm	added 9/1/47		10/1/67
a. Type Program	institutional-on-farm	institutional-on-farm	farm cooperative
b. Basic Allowance - No dependents	$67.50	$95.00	$105 10/1/67 141 2/1/70 177 10/1/72
c. Tuition, Fees, Books and Supplies	actual up to $500 for ordinary school year	None	None
d. Statutory Ceiling	same as 12c	None	None
e. Statutory Reduction in Allowance	None - (reduced only as required by statutory ceiling)	Yes - at 4 month intervals	None

Appendix A-1

EDUCATIONAL BENEFITS
GI Bill
(continued)

	W.W. II	KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN
18. (Continued)			
f. Full-time	200 hours classroom instruction 100 hours on-farm instruction per year plus full-time on-farm	Same	12 hours instruction per week effective 10/1/67 10 hours instruction per week effective 10/24/72
g. Part-time	not permitted	not permitted	3/4 time and 1/2 time
h. Farm control	required	required	not required (must be engaged in agricultural employment)
i. Maximum Absences	30 per year	30 per year	30 per year
19. Job Training			
a. Basic Allowance No Dependents	$50 6/22/44 65 1/1/46	$70	$[illegible]0 10/1/67 108 2/1/70 168 10/1/72
b. Cost of Tools Payment	yes (usually limited to $100)	No	No
c. Statutory Ceiling	same as 12c	$350	None

Appendix A-1

EDUCATIONAL BENEFITS
GI Bill

(continued)

	W.W. II	KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN
19. (Continued)			
d. Statutory Reductions	None (reduced only as required by wages or statutory ceiling)	Yes at 4 month intervals	Yes at 6 month intervals
e. Full-time	36 hours per week	36 hours	30 hours
f. Maximum Absences	30 per year	30 per year	30 per year - 10/1/67 no limit if 120 hours work per month effective 2/1/70
20. Flight			
a. Basic Subsistence Allowance	Same as institutional	None	None
b. Tuition and Fees	Yes - up to 100% with entitlement charge at rate of 1 day for each $2.10 paid	75% with a charge of entitlement at rate of 1 day for each $1.25 paid	90% with entitlement charge at rate of 1 month for payment equal to rates shown in 12a
c. Private Pilot's Course Allowed	Yes	Yes, if it is to be followed by advanced course	No

Appendix A-1

EDUCATIONAL BENEFITS
GI Bill
(continued)

	W.W. II	KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN
21. Correspondence			
a. Payment	cost up to $500	cost	cost effective 6-1-66 90% if enrolled after 12/31/72
b. Entitlement Charge	1/4 elapsed time	1/4 elapsed time	1/4 elapsed time - 6/1/66 - 1 month for each payment equal to rates shown in 12a effective 10-1-67
22. College Level			
a. Full-time	12 semester hours	14 semester hours	14 semester hours -or- 12 semester hours if considered full-time by school
b. Statutory Ceiling	Yes - same as 12c above	None	None
c. Absences Permitted	30 days a year	Not limited	Not limited
d. Tuition, Fees, Books and Supplies	limited to cost not to exceed $500 per school year unless veteran elected to have additional paid with a charge of 1 day for each additional $2.13 paid	Not paid	Not paid

Appendix A-1

EDUCATIONAL BENEFITS
GI Bill

(continued)

	W.W. II	KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN
22. (Continued)			
e. Pre-pay	No	No	Yes - Effective 11/1/72
23. Other Institutional			
a. Full-time	25 hours per week effective 6/22/44 effective 10/1/50 30 hours of attendance required in shop practice courses	25 hours net instruction 30 hours attendance in shop practice courses	25 hours net of instruction 30 hours of attendance in shop practice courses
b. Statutory Ceiling	Yes - same as 12c	None	None
c. Absences Permitted	30 days a year	30 days a year	30 days a year
d. Tuition, Fees, Books and Supplies	Limited to cost not to exceed $500 for ordinary school year unless veteran elected to have additional paid with an additional charge of 1 day for each $2.10 paid	Not paid	Not paid

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EDUCATIONAL BENEFITS
GI Bill

(continued)

	W.W. II	KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN
24. Foreign			
a. Level	all school levels	institutions of higher learning	institutions of higher learning
b. Payments	same as for U.S.	same as for U.S.	same as for U.S.

Appendix A-1

EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE RATES
GI Bill (con't)

		W.W. II RATES*			KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN CONFLICT			
Type	Dependency Status	PL 346, 78C 6-22-44	PL 268, 79C 1-1-46 1/	PL 512, 80C 6-1-48 2/	PL 550, 82C 8-23-52	PL 358, 89C 6-1-66	PL 77, 90C 10-1-67	PL 219, 91C 2-1-70	PL 540, 92C 10-1-72
Institutional	None	$50	$65	$ 75	$110	$100	$130	$175	$220
	One	75	90	105	135	125	155	205	261
	Two	75	90	120	160	150	175	230	298
	Each Additional	None	None	None	None	None	10	13	18
Job	None	$50	2/ $65	2/ $65	4/ $ 70		2/ $ 80	2/ $108	2/ $160
	One	75	90	90	85		90	120	179
	Two	75	90	90	105		100	133	196
	Each Additional	None	None	None	None		None	None	8
Correspondence		Established charges not to exceed $500			Established Charges	Established charges prior to 1 1 73 Enrollments after 12 31-72 - 90% of charges			
Flight		Established charge with accelerated entitlement charge of 1 day for each $2 10 paid			75% of charges with entitlement charge of 1 day for each $1 25	None	90% of charges with entitlement charge of 1 month for payment of amount equal to full-time no dependent rate		

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EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE RATES
GI Bill (con't)

		W.W. II BASIC			KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN CONFLICT			
Type	Dependency Status	PL 346, 78C 6-22-44	PL 268, 79C 1-1-46 1/	PL 512, 80C 4-1-48 2/	PL 550, 82C 8-20-52	PL 358, 89C 6-1-66	PL 77, 90C 10-1-67	PL 219, 91C 2-1-70	PL 540, 92C 10-1-72
Coopera-tive	None	Job rates plus pro-rata part of additional for institutional training			$ 90	$ 80	$105	$141	$177
	One				1[illegible]0	100	125	167	208
	Two				130	120	145	192	236
	Each Additional				None	None	7	10	14
Farm 6/	None		7/ $65.00	$67.50	$ 95		$105	$141	$177
	One		90.00	9[illegible].75	110		125	165	208
	Two		90.00	97.50	130		145	190	236
	Each Additional		None	None	None		7	10	14

* Does not include tuition, fees, books, supplies and equipment paid directly to school up to $500 for ordinary school year (If veteran elected to have excess charges paid by VA his entitlement was charged 1 day for each additional $2.10 paid)

1/ Effective 8-8-46 - Statutory ceiling of $175 on allowance plus earnings if no dependents and $200 for dependents

2/ Statutory ceiling increased to $210 for no dependents, $270 for one dependent and $290 for two or more dependents

3/ Subject to reduction based on statutory ceiling and wage differential (difference between trainee and journeyman wage)

4/ Statutory ceiling of $310 on allowance plus earnings - allowance reduced at 4 month intervals

5/ Reduced at six month intervals

6/ WW II and Korean Conflict provided institutional on-farm; Post Korean Conflict provides farm cooperative

7/ Added effective 9-1-47

Appendix A-2

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION BENEFITS

Chapter 31 USC (as of 2-73)

	W.W. II	KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN
1. Basic Law	Public Law 16, 78th Congress	Public Law 894, 81st Congress	Public Law 137, 89th Congress
2. Effective Date	March 24, 1943	February 1, 1951	October 1, 1965
3. Basic Service Period	September 16, 1940 - July 25, 1947	June 27, 1950 - January 31, 1955	February 1, 1955 - open end
4. Service Requirement	Honorably discharged from any service after 9-16-40 with service connected disability	Honorably discharged from any service after 9-16-40 with service connected disability	Honorably discharged from any service after 9-16-40 with service connected disability
5. Basic Entitlement	48 months	48 months	48 months
6. Commencement Time Limit	None	None	None
7. Period of Eligibility	Normally 6 years, originally, but 9 years, effective 12-28-45, after discharge	Normally 9 years after discharge	Normally 9 years after discharge

Appendix A-2

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION BENEFITS
(continued)

		W.W. II	KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN
8.	Allowance			
	a. Basic amount full-time single veteran (see table for complete chart)	$ 80 - 3-24-42 92 - 6-1-44 105 - 1-1-46 (115 - for veteran over 30% disabled - 9-1-47)	$105 - under 30% disabled 115 - over 30% disabled	$110 - 10-1-65 135 - 2-1-70 170 - 10-24-72
	b. Tuition, fees, books and supplies provided	Yes	Yes	Yes
	c. Reduction in subsistence for wages earned in training program	Yes	Yes	Yes
9.	Leaves of Absence	30 days in each 12 months	30 days in each 12 months	30 days in each 12 months
10.	Part-Time Training Allowed	Yes, in institutional on-farm training effective 4-1-48	Yes in institutional on-farm training effective 4-1-48	Effective July 26, 1958 part-time training was allowed for all courses

Appendix A-2

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION BENEFITS
(continued)

	W.W. II	KOREAN CONFLICT	POST KOREAN
11. Counseling Provided	Yes	Yes	Yes
12. Postrehabilitation Pay	Yes for 2 months after training completed	Yes for 2 months after training completed	Yes for 2 months after training completed
13. Extended Period of Eligibility	No	Yes effective 10-1-62 as to blind veterans and 10-1-65 as to other injured veterans	Yes, same
14. Specialized Vocational Training Services	Yes	Yes	Yes
15. Training Allowed			
a. College	Yes	Yes	Yes
b. Below college	Yes	Yes	Yes
c. OJT apprenticeship	Yes	Yes	Yes
d. Farm	Yes	Yes	Yes

Appendix A-2

SUBSISTENCE ALLOWANCE

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION
(Ch. 31, title 38 USC)

Type	Dependency Status	PL 16, 78C 3-24-43 1/	PL 312, 78C 6-1-44 1/	PL 268, 79C 1-1-46 1/ 3/		Dependency Status	PL 137, 89C 10-1-65 4/	PL 219, 91C 2-1-70 5/	PL 540 92C 10-1-72 6/
				Less than 30% disabled	30% or more disabled				
Institu-tional	No dependents	$80	$ 92.00	$105	$115	No dependents	$110	$135	$170
	Wife only	90	103.50	115	135	One dependent	150	181	211
	Wife & child	95	109.25	125	155	Two dependents	175	210	248
	Child only	90	103.50	115	135	Each additional	5/ 5	5/ 6	18
	Each parent	10	11.50	15	15				
	Each additional child	5	5.75	7	15				
Job 2/	No dependents	80	92.00	105	115	No dependents	95	118	148
	Wife only	90	103.50	115	135	One	125	153	179
	Wife & child	95	109.25	125	155	Two	150	181	207
	Child only	90	103.50	115	135	Each additional	5/ 5	5/ 6	14
	Each parent	10	11.50	15	15				
	Each additional child	5	5.75	7	15				

Appendix A-2

SUBSISTENCE ALLOWANCE

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION
(Ch. 31, title 38 USC)
(continued)

1/ Rates are disability compensation and subsistence allowance combined.

2/ Rates subject to reduction based on difference between trainee and journeyman wage rate.

3/ Basic rates were $65 for no dependents and $90 if veteran had dependents. Basic rate increased where necessary, to pay a combined minimum of disability compensation and subsistence allowance.

4/ Subsistence allowance only.

5/ Payable only if veteran less than 50% disabled.

Appendix A-3

DEPENDENTS EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE ALLOWANCE

Chapter 35 USC

1. Basic Law	Public Law 84-634
2. Effective Date	10-1-56
3. Basic Service Period	After beginning of Spanish-American War on April 28, 1898
4. Eligibility	
a. General	Dependents of person who died in service, is veteran who is permanently and totally disabled from service connected condition or is a prisoner of war or missing in action for more than 90 days
b. Sons and Daughters	After age 18 or completion of high school until age 26 (age 31 under certain circumstances)
c. Wives and Widows	Until November 30, 1976 or 8 years from the date the veteran was first found to have a service connected total disability permanent in nature or from his date of death, or from the date first listed as missing in action or captured, whichever is the later. (If a POW or MIA ceases to be listed in such status the student may continue in training for a limited time specified by regulations)
5. Basic Entitlement	36 months
6. Maximum Basic Entitlement Under One Law	36 months (plus time to complete high school, refresher, remedial or deficiency courses for wives or widows
7. Tutorial	$50 per month - $450 maximum
8. Educationally Disadvantaged	Regular benefits for courses to complete high school or the equivalent (wives and widows only) or to complete required refresher, remedial or deficiency courses (all dependents. There is a charge to entitlement for children but not for wives and widows.

Appendix A-3

DEPENDENTS EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE ALLOWANCE
(continued)

9. Rates of Benefits (see table for complete chart)	
a. Institutional	$220 per month full-time, $165 per month 3/4 time, $110 per month 1/2 time, less than 1/2 time, cost of tuition not to exceed rate of $220 for full-time
b. On Job and Apprenticeship (PL 92-540)	$160 per month
c. Cooperative	$177 per month (full-time only)
d. Correspondence (PL 92-540)	90% of cost of course - entitlement charged 1 month for each $220 paid
e. Flight	No
f. Special Restorative Training	For handicapped children at age 14.
10. Marriage Bar	
a. Sons and Daughters	No
b. Wives and Widows	Yes, but benefit may be reclaimed if second marriage is dissolved by death or divorce

Appendix A-3

DEPENDENTS EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE ALLOWANCE
(continued)

11. Time Limit To Begin Training	Sons and daughters must enter training before 26th birthday
12. Counseling	Wives, widows and children may receive vocational and educational counseling on request. Children not in, or accepted by, an institution of higher learning pursuing a standard college degree may be counseled to receive benefits.
13. Changes of Program - Wives, Widows and Children	One change of program is normally permitted. Subsequent changes of program may be allowed under certain circumstances.

Appendix A-3

DEPENDENTS EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE ALLOWANCE
(continued)

Type	PL 634, 84C 10-1-56	PL 222, 89C 11-1-65	PL 219, 91C 3-1-70	PL 540, 92C 10-1-72
Institutional	$110	$130	$175	$220
Cooperative	90	105	141	177
Job	-	-	-	1/ 160
Correspondence	-	-	-	2/ 90% of charges

1/ Statutory reduction at six month intervals.

2/ Entitlement charge at rate of 1 month for each $220 paid.

APPENDIX B

THE VETERAN IN CALIFORNIA EDUCATION:
A DESCRIPTION

INTRODUCTION

In the spring of 1972, the California State Scholarship and Loan Commission and the four major segments of post-secondary education in the state, with the assistance of the College Entrance Examination Board, conducted a study of students enrolled in higher education in California. The results of this study[1] provide a general data base concerning the characteristics of students in higher education in California. The survey also provides data on student financial aid and student economics. Through the cooperation of the College Entrance Examination Board, the data were reanalyzed to provide a subsidiary report, in the same form, on that portion of the population who indicated that they were veterans of the United States Armed Forces and/or were receiving benefits under the GI Bill. The information from that Survey forms the basis of this description of the veteran in higher education.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The survey instruments were distributed in January and February and completed and returned in March and April. As such, the responses indicate in large part how the students did finance their educations -- not how they might have financed them had conditions and situations been different.

2. The respondents classified for this report as veterans undoubtedly include some small number of widows and dependents who responded affirmatively to the general question "estimate the amount of money you will receive during the

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[1] Research Report Number 1. Student Resources Survey. Sacremento: California State Scholarship and Loan Commission, 1972.

nine-month academic year from . . . GI Bill." It was not possible to separate or positively identify this small number of respondents from the special analysis.

3. The Survey instrument collects anonymous, unverified student responses. As one would expect, some of the respondents expressed their displeasure at being asked to respond to yet another questionnaire by providing answers that demonstrated very creative impossibilities. The number of such responses was small, and the internal consistency of the majority of questionnaires appear to reflect honest efforts to answer the questions. Where external data were available for comparison, the student responses grouped closely around the expected averages.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The Survey instrument, known as the Student Resources Survey, contained a core of 64 common questions. Some segments added a few additional questions to obtain information unique to their needs. The first 10 questions collect basic descriptive information (sex, age, marital status, etc.); the next three general financial information (parental income, hours of employment, self-support); the next five information about college expenses; the next 28 information about the sources of financial support available during the school year (family, employment, personal savings, grants, loans, etc.); and the final 17 questions gather data about a variety of additional demographic and financial considerations (academic achievement, plans for persistence, living arrangements, etc.). A copy of the questionnaire is reproduced as Appendix A.

PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS:

Questionnaires were received from students enrolled in 81 institutions of higher education in California. At the University of California, 9 campuses participated; in the California State University and College System, II institutions; from the Independent Colleges and Universities, 4I participated; and from the community colleges, 20 institutions were included. A complete list of the participating institutions is reproduces as Appendix B.

SAMPLING TECHNIQUES:

It was intended that the questionnaires be distributed by the participating institutions to the entire student body during mid-year registration. However, differences in academic year calendar and registration procedures made this impossible at some. The data collection methods varied and influenced the sample size for each segment.

1. At the University of California all nine campuses participated. With the exception of the Los Angeles campus (which mailed questionnaires to all students), all of the campuses distributed questionnaires during the January registration. Responses were received from approximately 64 percent of the total enrollment. Comparison of the responses to independent information for the same period revealed that the Survey responses were within 2-4 percent of enrollment reports. In the opinion of the University, the data are representative of the University of California student population.

2. Eleven campuses of the California State University and College System participated. At eight the questionnaire was included in the spring quarter registration process, at two the questionnaire was distributed in connection with closing registration activities, and at one a ten percent random sample mail survey was conducted. Responses were received from 18.4 percent of the

total student body. It was determined that the questionnaire responses compared favorably with system-wide distributions available from other sources (within 2-5 percent in most instances). The CSUC found that the survey was fairly representative of the total student body and no evidence was found to indicate significant systematic bias.

3. Forty-one institutions that are members of the Association of Independent California Colleges and Universities participated. Most chose a sample size of between 25 and 50 percent of enrollment. A few distributed to every student. Either direct mail or classroom administration was used in most cases. The response rate represents 11.7 percent of the total enrollment in the AICCU member institutions.

4. Twenty community colleges were selected as a representative sample of the 93 in California. The participating community colleges employed a wide variety of sampling approaches with the primary method a classroom distribution to all students enrolled in selected classes or in classes meeting at selected times.

RESPONSE RATE AND RETURNS:

Completed questionnaires were received from 160,870 students, both graduate and undergraduate, enrolled in 81 institutions of post-secondary education. The distribution of responses was:

	Participating Institutions	Number of Responses	Percent of Enrollment Responding
University of California	9	63,740	64%
California State University and Colleges	11	47,252	18
Independent Colleges and Universities	41	12,182	12
Community Colleges	20	37,696	5
	81	160,870	

Within the total respondent group approximately 16 percent identified themselves as veterans. The distribution of veterans was:

	Number of Responses from Veterans	Percent of Total Respondents
University of California	5,552	8.7%
California State University and Colleges	9,832	20.8
Independent Colleges and Universities	1,322	10.8
Community Colleges	9,104	24.1
	25,810	

DATA ANALYSIS:

The completed questionnaires were keypunched and analyzed by a computer system, QUEST, developed by the College Entrance Examination Board. In addition to providing basic frequency distributions, percentages, and means for the responses to individual questions, the system provides for the internal generation of information through the combination of responses to individual questions. For example, the special analysis produced for the veterans population was generated through the combination of responses to question 64 ("Are you a veteran of the U.S. Armed Forces") and question 40 ("Are you receiving assistance under the GI Bill"). The original analysis was completed in the summer of 1972; the special veterans analysis in early June, 1973. Both analyses were made using the same computer system.

COMPARABILITY OF THE DATA

The basic sample of 160,870 included in the California Student Resource Survey was compared against independent statistical analyses available through the educational institutions represented. Where comparison data were available, the responses given in the Student Resource Survey fell within two to five percent of the expected. However, in some instances no directly comparable information was available and the possibility exists that there may not be a complete representation of the total population. For example, high income students who were not interested in financial aid may not have completed the questions dealing with resources and expenses, thereby restricting the range of data in the survey. Although there is no evidence in the results that would lead to the conclusion that there was a selective bias in the sample, the absence of comparative data precludes a definitive statement. Such comparative data as are available, in the opinion of the original research staff and representatives of the institutions themselves, indicate that the results are representative of the total population of students in post-secondary education in California and justify a high level of confidence in the information from this group.

Within the total sample of students in post-secondary education in California, 16 percent of the students identify themselves as veterans. As would be expected, the sample of veterans differs from the general population on a number of variables. It is clearly not comparable to the general population in California -- which was expected and anticipated.

In one particular aspect, both the total sample and the veterans sample in

California are not representative of the totality of post-secondary education in the United States. Both reflect the fact that the pattern of California post-secondary education is heavily in favor of attendance at public institutions.

Table 1
Enrollment By Type of Control of Institution

Institutional Control	United States[2] Fall, 1971	California[3] Fall, 1970	[illegible] Total Population Spring, 1972	[illegible] Veteran Population Spring, 1972
Public	74%	90%	92%	95%
Private	26	10	8	5

As Willingham has commented[4], "The free access higher institutions in California are almost exclusively the public community colleges . . . they account for 80 percent of all first-time enrollment in the state . . . throughout the state 90 percent of the population lives within commuting distance of a free-access college . . . this figure, as much as any other, illustrates the radically different shape higher education will take if it follows the California model . . . California is an important state because it is often regarded as a progressive bellwether for the future shape of higher education in the rest of the nation . . ." It is natural, therefore, that both the total and veterans samples of the Student Resources Survey should reflect this pattern of attendance at institutions.

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[2] Projections of Educational Statistics to 1980-81, Washington: National Center for Educational Statistics, 1971.

[3] Digest of Educational Statistics, Washington: National Center for Educational Statistics, 1971.

[4] Willingham, Warren. Free-access Higher Education, New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1970.

A related reason which may explain the heavy enrollment in public institutions in the Student Resources Survey veterans group is the tuition levels at the various institutions. This is particularly relevant to the veteran of the Vietnam Conflict, who unlike his World War II counterpart, does not receive a tuition allowance in addition to his subsistence. The State University and College and Community College systems, with the lowest tuition, contributed most heavily to the veterans sample. The Independent Colleges and the University, with the higher tuitions, contributed least to the sample.

Table 2
Response Rates and Average Tuition
Spring, 1972

Type of Institution	Percent of Total Sample	Percent of Veterans Sample	Average Tuition and Fees[5]
Community Colleges	23.4%	35.2%	$ 144
State College and University	29.4	38.1	207
University	39.6	21.5	835
Independent Colleges	7.5	5.1	1,827

The sample of data included in the California Student Resource Survey appears to be representative of the total post-secondary educational population in that state. That the sample is biased in favor of students attending lower-cost public institutions is reflective of conditions in California, and may not represent the totality of post-secondary education in the United States.

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[5] Student reported data. While this may vary from the officially estimated averages, it does represent the students' perceptions of what they are being charged and are paying.

COMPARISON WITH VETERANS POPULATIONS:

A comparison of the Student Resources Survey respondents and veterans is made difficult by the general lack of information in the Veterans Administration about the veterans population in general and the population in education in specific. The comparisons are even more difficult with conflicts other than the most recent, where Veterans Administration statistics are nearly all unpublished, informal, and inconsistent.

Type of Institution:

As indicated earlier, the Student Resources Survey veterans population reflects the trend in the State of California toward attendance at the lower cost public institutions of post-secondary education. This trend, however, has increased since World War II. It represents a general trend in post-secondary education in the nation toward public institutions:

Table 3
Enrollment in Institutions of Higher Education
United States, by Control of Institution[6]

Type of Control	1948	1958	1971
Public	49.3	58.4	74.3
Private	50.7	41.6	25.7

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[6] Digest of Educational Statistics. Washington: National Center for Educational Statistics, 1971.

The enrollment of veterans has appeared to coincide with this national trend toward public education. The veterans in the Student Resources Survey accentuate this tendency, probably as a reflection of the educational system and opportunities in the State of California:

Table 4
Veterans Enrollment in Institutions of Higher Education
Selected Populations

Veterans Group In Training	Public Institutions	Private Institutions
World War II 1948-49[7]	50%	50%
Korean Conflict 1957-58[7]	62	38
Vietnam Conflict 1971-72[7]	79	21
California Student Resource Survey 1971-72[8]	95	5

Another reason for the particularly high participation in public post-secondary education among the Student Resources Survey population is the level of tuition charged by the institutions, as previously noted.

Age of Veterans:

The average age of the Vietnam Conflict veteran is higher than that of the Korean conflict veteran, but lower than that of the World War II veteran. The reported average age of the veteran in training post-Vietnam is similar to that of the two previous groups. Within the Student Resources Survey veterans population, the mean age is nearly comparable to that of the total post-Vietnam veteran, but higher than the reported average for veterans in training at the same time. The distribution of ages appears to be generally representative of the total Vietnam veteran population, with slightly less representation among the youngest veteran and somewhat more representation of the oldest veterans.

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[7] Hearings before the Subcommittee on Readjustment, Education, and Employment, Committee on Veterans Affairs, United States Senate, on S.2161 and related bills, March 23, 1973.

[8] Student Resources Survey. Sacremento: California State Scholarship and Loan Commission, 1972.

Table 5

Age of Veterans, Selected Populations

Veterans Group	Under 20	20-24	25-29	30-34	35 and Above	Mean Age
World War II Total Group, June, 1947[9]	.3%	27.7%	33.2%	19.7%	19.1%	29.1
In-Training[10] 1948-49	.8	41.3	35.3	14.4	8.2	26.6
Korean Conflict Total Group December, 1954[9]	1.2	44.4	37.8	9.5	7.1	26.6
In-Training[10]	--	21.9	63.7	11.9	2.5	26.9
Vietnam Conflict Total Group[9] December, 1972	.9	30.6	46.8	14.2	7.5	28.0
In-Training[10]	.3	30.4	40.4	15.8	13.0	26.6
Student Resource[11] Survey Veterans	3.2	23.7	43.0	14.8	15.3	28.8

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[9] Data on Vietnam Era Veterans. Washington: Veterans Administration, 1972.

[10] Unpublished Veterans Administration statistics. While it is acknowledged that periods of time are not comparable with other statistics, the data presented here are the best available from the Veterans Administration.

[11] Special analysis of the basic Student Resources Survey responses. All subsequent references to "Student Resource Survey Veterans" and "California Veterans" are from this analysis.

Rate of Attendance:

The veterans in the Student Resources Survey population are enrolled at rates of training which appear to be comparable to the total veterans population in training for the period:

Table 6
Rate of Training, Selected Populations

Veterans Group	Full-time	Less Than Full-Time
World War II[12] November, 1947	83.8%	16.2%
Korean Conflict[12] November, 1956	66.8	33.2
Vietnam Conflict[13] November, 1972	70.1	29.9
Student Resources Survey Spring, 1972	68.7	31.3

The Student Resources Survey veterans and Vietnam Conflict veterans as a total group are attending post-secondary institutions full-time in smaller percentages than did the World War II group, but slightly more than did the veterans of the Korean Conflict. The differences between the SRS and total veterans group are not significant.

Dependents:

The Student Resources Survey veterans population includes a smaller percentage of unmarried veterans (being paid for no dependent) than does the total Vietnam era group in training; more married veterans without children (being paid for one dependent); and substantially more married veterans with children (being paid for more than one dependent).

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[12] Unpublished Veterans Administration Statistics

[13] Information Bulletin DVB 1B, 24-72-9. Washington: Veterans Administration, 1972. Total college attendance adjusted to remove correspondence school participation.

Table 7
Veterans' Dependents, Selected Populations
In Training

Veterans Group	Not Paid For Dependents (Single)	Paid For One Dependent (Married, No Children)	Paid For More Than One Dependent (Married, with Children)
World War II[14] November, 1947	46.1%	23.7%	30.2%
Korean Conflict[14] November, 1956	46.0	17.5	36.5
Vietnam Conflict[14] November, 1972	58.3	17.2	24.5
Student Resource Survey Spring, 1972 (Higher Education Only)	45.1	22.3	32.5

In terms of dependents, the Student Resources Survey veterans are more like their counterparts in the earlier two groups in training than they are like the general population of Vietnam Era veterans in training.

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[14] Data on Vietnam Era Veterans. Washington: Veterans Administration, 1972.

THE VETERAN IN CALIFORNIA EDUCATION: A DESCRIPTION

SEX:

As would be expected, the veterans population is predominantly male. In the California veterans sample, 89.4 percent of the respondents indicated they were male; 10.6 percent female. This compares with 59.0 percent male and 41.0 percent female in the total California sample. The number of women who described themselves as veterans is significantly higher than the total number of women in the national veterans population, a finding that may be partially explained by the small number of widows and orphans who are included in the sample. Within the veterans sample, the largest percentage of women are enrolled in the Independent Colleges and Universities, where 14.2 percent of veterans described themselves as women.

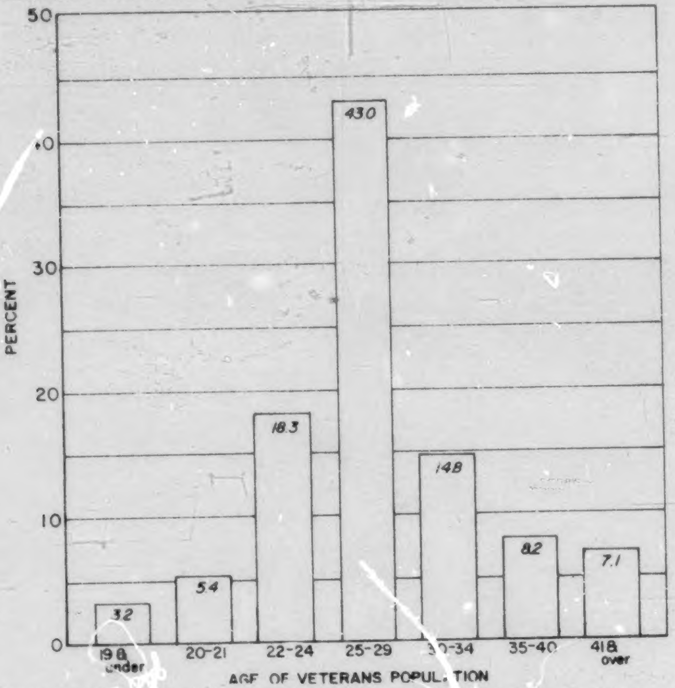
AGE:

The veterans population is significantly older than the general population of students in education in California and older than the total population in education in the United States. The mean age of all students in California responding to the survey was 24.1 years; the veterans mean age was 28.8 years. The following table compares the veterans population 34 years of age and under with the total population of students in post-secondary education in the United States and in the total California Survey population:

Table 8
College Students by Age, 34 Years and Under
Selected Groups

Age	U.S. Undergraduate College Enrollment October, 1971[15]	California SRS Total Spring, 1972	Veterans Group Spring, 1972
19 and Under	43.6%	21.5%	3.8%
20 - 21	28.1	29.2	6.3
22 - 24	14.8	24.5	21.7
25 - 34	13.5	24.8	68.2

The following chart shows the percentage distribution of all veterans in the California Student Resource Survey by age:



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[15] Undergraduate Enrollment in Two-Year and Four-Year Colleges, October, 1971 Washington: Bureau of the Census, 1972.

MARITAL STATUS AND DEPENDENTS:

Veterans are much more likely to be married than are students in general or students in California. The Bureau of the Census reports that only 20.3 percent of the total undergraduate enrollment is married with spouse present[16]; the total California population includes 25.4 percent of students married with spouse present; while the California veterans population includes 54.9 percent of students married with spouse present.

Table 9
Marital Status
California Veterans Population
Spring, 1972

Never Married	37.3%
Married	54.9
Separated	2.0
Divorced	4.5
Widowed	.5
Other	.8

For those veterans who have children dependent on them, 41.9 percent report one child, 34.5 percent two children, 14.4 percent three children, 6.8 percent four children, and 2.3 percent five or more children. The mean number of children is 1.9.

ETHNIC BACKGROUND:

In the California veterans population, 71.1 percent of the respondents indicated that they described themselves as Caucasian or White, as compared with

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[16] Op. Cit.

71.3 percent of the total California population who described themselves as such. Among the non-White population a somewhat higher percentage of veterans described themselves as Black (African-American, Negro) and Chicano (Mexican-American); a somewhat smaller percentage described themselves as Oriental (Asian-American) than in the total California population.

Table 10
Ethnic Background
California Total and Veterans Populations
Spring, 1972

How Do You Describe Yourself	Total California Population	Veterans
American Indian/Native American	3.2%	3.9%
Black/African-American/Negro	5.0	7.0
Caucasian/White	71.3	71.1
Chicano/Mexican-American	5.7	8.7
Oriental/Asian-American	7.4	4.0
Other Spanish-speaking American	1.3	1.4
Other	6.1	4.0

Because of the specific comparability of percentage of Caucasian/White in the total California and veteran population, and the potential difficulties in distinguishing between membership in specific ethnic minority groups, the subsequent analyses in this report which have ethnic group membership as a variable will be confined to White and Non-White.

FAMILY INCOME BACKGROUND:

The median income in 1971 for the parents of veterans in the California study was somewhat lower than that for the total California group, falling between

$9,000 and $11,999 as compared with a median for the total group of between $12,000 and $14,999. In the total sample, 19.1 percent of the students came from families with incomes of less than $6,000 per year; in the veterans group 27.1 percent of the respondents indicated that their family income was below $6,000. The total group included 12.6 percent of students from families with annual incomes of over $25,000, while the veterans group included only 7.6 percent of families above that level.

Within the veterans group there was a marked difference between the White and Non-White veteran family income background. The White veteran came from a family with a mean income of $12,062. The Non-White veteran's family had a mean income of $9,066. Only 22.5 percent of the White veterans reported coming from families with incomes of less than $6,000; 37.8 percent of the Non-White veteran's families were below that level. While 9.I percent of the White veterans came from families with incomes over $25,000, 4.3 percent of the Non-White veteran's parents had such incomes. The following table compares the parental income of the total California student population, the total California veteran population, and the White-Non-White veteran groups.

Table 11
1971 Income of Parents
Selected Populations in California
Spring, 1972

Parental Income 1971	Total Sample	Total Veterans	White Veterans	Non-White Veterans
Less than $ 3,000	9.5%	14.0%	10.8%	21.0%
$ 3,000 to $ 5,999	9.6	13.3	11.7	16.8
$ 6,000 to $ 7,499	7.3	9.1	8.6	10.4
$ 7,500 to $ 8,999	7.4	9.7	9.2	10.[illegible]
$ 9,000 to $11,999	15.2	16.9	17.7	15.0
$12,000 to $14,999	14.3	13.3	14.6	10.3
$15,000 to $17,999	9.6	7.0	8.0	4.8
$18,000 to $20,999	7.9	5.2	5.7	4.0
$21,000 to $24,999	6.6	3.8	4.5	2.4
$25,000 and above	12.6	7.6	9.1	4.3

It appears that the veteran comes from a lower economic sector than does the general college student, and that the Non-White veteran comes from a family economic background that is even lower than that typical of the total group.

CLASS LEVEL:

The veteran in education in California is more likely to be in the upper-division (college junior or higher) than is the typical student in the California Survey or the typical student in the United States. A total of 62.7 percent of the California veterans reported that they had completed at least two years of college; 58.9 percent of the total California group had completed two years, and only 46.5 percent of the total US undergraduate population were enrolled at the senior level.

Table 12
College Class Level
Selected Populations

Class Level	U.S. Undergraduate Enrollment October, 1971[17]	California Population	
		Total Spring, 1972	Veterans
First Year	30.2%	21.5%	17.2%
Second Year	23.5	19.6	20.1
Third Year	17.2	18.9	20.5
Fourth Year	14.5	16.6	18.2
Fifth or Higher	14.7	20.4	22.5
Other	—	3.0	1.4

CURRICULUM:

The California veteran is most likely to be registered in a program of Business Administration (19.7 percent) or Humanities and Social Sciences (24.5 percent). Agriculture (3.1 percent), Health Professions (3.5 percent) and Nursing (1.2 percent) have the smallest enrollments.

Table 13
Type of Educational Program
California Veterans

Type of Program	
Agricultural Sciences	3.1%
Business Administration	19.7
Humanities or Social Sciences	24.5
Physical and Life Sciences, Mathematics	10.9
Engineering, Architecture	10.1
Education	6.7
Nursing	1.2
Health Professions	3.5
Law	6.5
Undeclared Major or Other	13.8

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[17] Social and Economic Statistics of Students, October, 1971. Washington: Bureau of the Census, 1972.

THE COST OF GOING TO COLLEGE: THE VETERAN'S EXPENSE BUDGET

On the Student Resources Survey data collection instrument, the veterans were asked to indicate the amounts that they spent during the nine-month 1971-72 academic year (roughly September, 1971 to June, 1972) for tuition and fees; books, supplies, and course materials; room and board; transportation; and clothing, recreation, and incidental expenses. Because the amount paid for tuition and fees are fixed by institutional policy, in most cases are not dependent upon the personal characteristics of the student, and vary widely among the institutions participating in the Survey, they have been eliminated from these comparisons in order to more accurately reflect those items of educationally related expense which are under the control of the veteran and can vary according to the choices he makes.

Books, supplies, and course materials:

There seems to be little variation in the amount paid by the veteran for the books and other materials he needs to purchase. The mean expenditure of all veterans in the sample for these items was $162.30, with slightly higher means for students attending private institutions and the University. Seventy-seven percent of all veterans reported spending less than $200, while only 4.7 percent reported spending more than $400.

Table 14
Veterans Expenditures for Books, Supplies, and Course Materials
1971-72 Academic Year

Less than $200	77.7%
$201 to $400	17.6
$401 to $600	2.9
$601 and above	1.8

In the subsequent analyses, the mean expense of all veterans for books, supplies, and course materials of $162 will be used.

Room and board:

The mean expense of room and board for the nine-month academic year reported by all veterans was $1,489. The white veteran reported expenses that averaged more than the mean ($1,572) and the non-white veteran averaged considerably less than the mean ($1,262). Single veterans reported an average expenditure of $1,068, married veterans without children an average of $1,686, and married veterans with children an average of $1,982.

Table 15
Veterans Expenditures for Room and Board
1971-72 Academic Year

Expenditure	All Veterans	White	Non-White	Single	Married no Child	Married with Children
Less than $ 200	10.6%	8.3%	17.0%	12.7%	9.1%	9.3%
$ 201 to $ 400	5.6	4.6	8.3	5.5	6.0	5.5
$ 401 to $ 600	5.2	4.7	6.4	8.2	2.6	2.8
$ 601 to $1,000	14.7	14.6	14.9	22.9	9.3	6.4
$1,000 to $1,500	22.0	22.9	19.3	29.6	18.7	13.0
$1,501 to $2,000	16.4	16.9	15.1	13.1	20.6	16.7
$2,001 to $2,500	9.3	10.2	7.0	4.8	13.3	12.0
$2,501 to $3,000	8.4	9.1	6.4	2.1	11.9	15.5
$3,000 and above	7.9	8.7	5.7	1.2	8.6	18.7

Clothing, recreation, and incidentals:

Another major variable item in the veteran's budget is the amount that is spent on "miscellaneous" items (none-the-less necessary for maintenance, survival, and attendance at college). In the Student Resources Survey these were grouped together under the heading "Clothing, recreation, and incidentals. The average expenditure for the nine-month academic year for these items reported by the veterans in the Survey was $503. White veterans reported slightly smaller average expenditures of $498, while non-white veterans had a somewhat higher average of $517. Single veterans reported a low average expenditure of $403, while married veterans (including both those with and without children) considerably above the average with a mean expenditure of $569.

Table 16
Veterans Expenditures for Clothing, Recreation, and Incidentals
1971-72 Academic Year

Expenditure	All Veterans	White	Non-White	Single	Married
Less than $ 200	34.9%	34.5%	36.0%	38.8%	32.0%
$ 201 to $ 400	24.8	25.4	23.3	27.0	23.4
$ 401 to $ 600	16.9	17.0	16.6	17.6	16.4
$ 601 to $1,000	12.3	12.1	12.7	10.2	13.9
$1,001 to $1,500	5.0	5.2	4.6	3.4	6.2
$1,501 and above	6.2	5.9	6.9	3.0	8.0

Transportation:

The average expense reported by the veterans for transportation was $346. Seventy percent of the veterans reported total nine-month expenditures for transportation of less than $400, while only 5.3 percent reported spending more than $1,000.

Table 17
Veterans Expenditures for Transportation
1971-72 Academic Year

Less than $ 200	44.5%
$ 201 to $ 400	25.6
$ 401 to $ 500	14.8
$ 501 to $1,000	9.8
$1,001 and above	5.3

Total Nine-Month Academic Year Budget:

As previously indicated, the nine-month academic year budget was calculated excluding the amount reportedly paid for tuition and fees in an attempt to represent only those expenses which were under the control of the veteran and to remove any bias caused by the type of institution that the veteran elected to attend. The mean expenditure for the total group of veterans for nine-months was $2,500. The budgets were distributed as follows:

Table 18
Veterans Total Nine-Month Budget
1971-72 Academic Year

Less than $ 200	2.6%
$ 201 to $ 400	7.8
$ 401 to $ 600	6.7
$ 601 to $1,000	7.3
$1,001 to $1,500	8.4
$1,501 to $2,000	9.8
$2,001 to $2,500	11.4
$2,501 to $3,000	10.9
$3,001 to $3,500	8.7
$3,501 to $4,000	7.3
$4,001 to $4,500	5.3
$4,501 to $5,000	4.0
$5,001 to $6,000	4.9
$6,001 and above	4.9

Differential budgets were calculated for sub-groups of the veterans population. Since the amounts reportedly spent for books, supplies, and course materials and transportation appeared not to vary greatly from group to group, constant amounts of $162 for books and supplies and $346 for transportation were included.

Table 19
Veterans Total Nine-Month Budget
Selected Populations
1971-72 Academic Year

Mean Expenditure	Total Veterans	White	Non-White	Single	Married no Child	Married with Children
Books, supplies, and course materials	$ 162	$ 162	$ 162	$ 162	$ 162	$ 162
Room and board	1,489	1,572	1,262	1,068	1,686	1,982
Clothing, recreation and incidentals	503	498	517	403	569	569
Transportation	346	346	346	346	346	346
TOTAL	$2,500	$2.578	$2,287	$1,979	$2,763	$3,059

DEPENDENCE, INDEPENDENCE, AND PARENTAL SUPPORT

It is generally assumed that the veteran is by definition independent of support from his parents or guardians, and any support from this source is generally discounted or ignored. The Student Resource Survey asks a number of questions relative to independence and dependence on parents, and some of the responses received from the veterans indicate that parental support is not non-existant. The veterans were asked if they were claimed by their parents as dependent for federal income tax purposes, and for the 1971 tax year 10.9 percent had been claimed. For the 1972 tax year 7.8 percent had been claimed as dependent. When asked if they (and their spouses if applicable) contributed to their own support, an even larger percentage indicated that they did not consider themselves to be self-supporting:

Table 20
Self-Reported Dependency Status
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Do You (and Spouse if Applicable) Contribute to Your Own Support?	
No	8.0%
Yes, but parents provide most of my support	9.3
Yes, I am primarily self-supporting	82.6

The veterans were asked how much support they actually received from their parents or guardians during the 1971-72 academic year. Of the total group, 76.6 percent reported that they had received no assistance, and 90.4 percent reported that they had received less than $600. Although the mean amount of support received from parents or guardians for the total group was only $196, the average for those who reported that they did receive a contribution was $838.

Table 21
Reported Parental Support
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Amount of Parental Support	Total	Single	Married
None	76.6%	58.7%	90.0%
$ 1 to $ 200	8.3	14.1	3.8
$201 to $ 400	3.2	6.4	1.2
$401 to $ 600	2.4	4.4	.8
$601 to $1,000	3.0	5.5	1.1
Over $1,000	6.4	10.8	3.0
Mean	$196	$325	$ 96
Mean, excluding those receiving no support	838	787	936
Percent of veterans receiving parental support	23.4%	42.2%	10.0%

The most commonly accepted standard for independence is that developed by the Congress and the Office of Education in connection with the newly established Basic Educational Opportunity Grant Program. To be classified as self-supporting for that program, the student must not have been claimed as an income tax dependent for the current and preceding tax year, and must not have received more than $600 in support from parents or legal guardians during the preceding academic year. According to this definition, 34.1 percent of the veterans in the California Sample would be considered dependent on their parents:

Table 22
B.E.O.G. Dependency Status
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Undergraduate Dependent Living at Home	12.6%
Undergraduate Dependent Living Away from Home	17.4
Graduate Dependent	4.1
Undergraduate Self-Supporting	50.5
Graduate Self-Supporting	15.3

Since a significant number of veterans might be considered to be dependent on their parents for the purpose of assessing their eligibility for aid from other federally funded programs, some consideration should be given to the amount of support that they might be expected to receive from parents. The Student Resource Survey calculates two measures of expected parental contribution. The first approximates the national standards of the College Scholarship Service, an association of more than 1,200 colleges and universities which analyzes the need for financial assistance. The second approximates the contributions that would be expected under the Basic Educational Opportunity Grant Program of the federal government. Naturally, both of these measures of potential parental support produce amounts greatly in excess of that reported as actually received by the veterans.

Table 23

Potential Parental Contribution
Toward Educational Expenses
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Computed Parental Contribution	C.S.S. System	B.E.O.G. System
None	26.7%	10.8%
$ 1 to $ 200	2.1	1.9
$ 201 to $ 400	2.6	9.7
$ 401 to $ 600	7.9	5.0
$ 601 to $1,000	8.1	11.5
$1,001 to $1,500	16.2	9.0
$1,501 to $2,000	3.6	8.8
$2,001 to $2,500	9.0	12.0
$2,501 to $3,000	2.4	6.5
Over $3,000	21.4	24.9
Mean	$1,396	$1,732

SELF SUPPORT

Most colleges and universities expect that students will provide some portion of their expenses from their own efforts independent of what their parents or the institution can provide. This is generally referred to as "self-help," and includes contributions from personal savings and assets, part-time work during the academic year and vacation periods, and, for married students, the contribution that their spouse makes toward living expenses. Generally, the older the student is, the larger amount the college expects will be provided through self-help. Since the veterans group is significantly older than the typical student group, this source of support should be particularly important to them.

Veterans in the California sample reported that they worked an average of 20.3 hours per week in part-time jobs during the school year, and 15.4 percent of those who were employed indicated that they worked 31 hours or more per week. Earnings from term-time employment were a substantial source of support. For those veterans who worked during the academic year, the mean income was $1,695. Only 26.3 percent of those who worked indicated that they earned less than $600 during the nine-month academic year, while 21.5 percent of the employed indicated that they earned more than $3,000.

Employment during the summer vacation was also a major source of support; 38.0 percent of the veterans reported that they worked during the summer vacation, and earned an average of $1,620. Of those who worked, 27.1 percent reported that they earned less than $600 during the summer, while 18.3 percent indicated earnings during the summer of more than $3,000.

When summer and term-time employment are combined, the contribution that they make toward educational expenses is even greater. More than half (55.3 percent) of the veterans reported that they worked at some time during the year, and their earnings were reported as $2,486. Only 17.1 percent of the veterans earned less than $600 during the entire year, while 35.7 percent reported earnings in excess of $3,000 for the year.

Table 24
Veterans Employment, Term-Time and Summer
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Earnings	Term-Time	Summer	Total
$ 1 to $ 200	8.3%	8.8%	5.8%
$ 201 to $ 400	8.9	9.5	4.9
$ 401 to $ 600	9.1	9.8	6.4
$ 601 to $1,000	14.6	15.2	11.2
$1,001 to $1,500	11.2	11.6	9.3
$1,501 to $2,000	8.8	8.5	8.9
$2,001 to $2,500	5.9	4.7	7.1
$2,501 to $3,000	11.6	13.7	10.6
$3,001 and above	21.5	18.3	35.7
Mean Earnings	$1,695	$1,620	$2,486
Percent of Veterans Reporting Earnings	40.4%	37.1%	55.3%

Another source towards which the colleges typically look in measuring the need of a student is the amount that he can contribute from savings from past employment. Since the veteran has had an opportunity to acquire some savings while in the service, it is reasonable to expect that he might contribute significantly from this source. In the California Survey, 30.6 percent of the veterans reported that they had used savings as a means of financing their education, in an average amount of $898.

Table 25
Veterans Contribution from Savings
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

$ 1 to $ 200	28.8%
$ 201 to $ 400	15.3
$ 401 to $ 600	11.9
$ 601 to $1,000	14.2
$1,001 to $1,500	9.2
$1,501 to $2,000	5.0
$2,001 to $2,500	3.1
$2,501 and above	12.6
Mean Contribution from Savings	$898
Percent of veterans using savings for educational expenses	30.6%

A large percentage of the veterans are married and it is reasonable to expect that they will have contributions from their spouses toward the cost of education and maintenance. Of the California veterans, 21.4 percent reported that they did have a contribution from their spouse, with an average for those reporting income from this source of $2,284. Of the veterans whose spouse's worked, 41.7 percent reported contributions in excess of $3,000.

Table 26
Veterans Contributions from Spouse
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

\$ 1 to \$ 200	9.0%
\$ 201 to \$ 400	5.2
\$ 401 to \$ 600	4.2
\$ 601 to \$1,000	7.7
\$1,001 to \$1,500	5.5
\$1,501 to \$2,000	5.9
\$2,001 to \$2,500	5.2
\$2,501 to \$3,000	15.6
\$3,001 and above	41.7
Mean Contribution from Spouse	\$2,284
Percent of veterans reporting contribution from spouse	21.4%

PARTICIPATION IN OTHER FEDERAL STUDENT AID PROGRAM

In addition to the benefits provided directly by the federal government to the veteran through the GI Bill, there are other forms of federally funded financial assistance for college students in which the veterans may participate. While none of the other programs have specific preferences for veterans, there is nothing to deny them eligibility if they meet the standards and regulations of those programs. The major federally-funded aid programs in which the veteran could have participated during the 1971-72 academic year were:

Educational Opportunity Grants (any undergraduate)

Health Professions Grants (students in medicine, nursing, and other health related curricula)

Law Enforcement Grants (students in police science and other law enforcement related curricula

National Defense Student Loans (any student)

Health Professions Loans

Law Enforcement Loans

Federally Insured Student Loans (any student, granted through state agencies or commercial lending institutions)

College Work-Study Employment

The Student Resource Survey inquires specifically about student participation in these particular programs.

GRANTS

For some veterans, the other federally-funded grant programs provide a substantial amount of support, although the number of veterans receiving these grants is relatively small. Of those veterans receiving Educational Opportunity Grants, the average award was $538. Only 1.4 percent of the veterans, however, reported receiving any support from the Educational Opportunity Grant Program. Grants from the Health Professions programs were an even larger source of support, with the average award to veterans receiving funds from this source at $613. Only 2.4 percent of the veterans reported receiving aid from the Health Professions grant program. Slightly fewer veterans, 2.1 percent, reported grants from the Law Enforcement Education Program, with the average grant to these recipients of $415.

Table 27
Veterans Participation in Other Federally-Funded Grants
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Amount of Grant	E.O.G.	Health Professions Grant	L.E.E.P. Grant
$ 1 to $ 200	--	51.8%	50.4%
$ 201 to $ 400	35.5%	4.2	16.9
$ 401 to $ 600	28.1	6.4	12.2
$ 601 to $1,000	36.3	6.6	7.9
$1,001 to $1,500	--[18]	15.6	6.1
$1,500 and above	---	15.3	6.5
Mean Grant Amount	$538	$615	$415
Percent of Veterans Receiving Grant	1.4%	2.4%	2.1%

The relatively small participation by veterans in these other federally-funded grant programs may be due to the regulations which require that the grants go only to students "who would otherwise be unable to attend." Since the veteran has resources available to him through the GI Bill the colleges may believe that he could otherwise attend and therefore reserve the limited amounts of grant funds they have available to students who do not have any significant amount of resources of their own.

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[18] In 1971-72, the stuatutory maximum E.O.G. was $1,000.

LOANS:

The federally-funded loan programs play a larger part in meeting the educational costs of the veteran, but participation in these programs is still small. Loans under the National Defense Student Loan Program, the largest and most generally available of the college-based loan programs, were granted to 4.6 percent of the reporting veterans. The average amount to those who received loans was $517. Loans under the Health Progessions programs went to only 1.2 percent of the veterans, although the average loan amount was considerably higher, $1,667. Law Enforcement Education program loans went to 1.9 percent of the veterans, with the average amount $449.

Among the federally-sponsored loans, the non-college based Federally Insured Student Loan was the most frequent source of support for the reporting veterans. Nearly 11 percent of the veterans reported that they had received assistance from this source, with an average amount of $981 being reported. It should be noted that the needs test for the Federally Insured Student Loan is less rigorous than those required for the college-based programs, and that the loans are granted by private lending agencies such as banks, savings and loan associations, and credit unions. This may account for the larger veteran participation in this program.

Table 28
Veterans Participation in Other Federally-Funded Loans
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Amount of Loan	N.D.S.L.	Health Professions Loan	L.E.E.P. Loan	Federally Insured Loan
$ 1 to $ 200	18.4%	6.3%	50.2%	9.3%
$ 201 to $ 400	14.7	2.8	14.9	4.2
$ 401 to $ 600	16.1	5.3	10.8	8.6
$ 601 to $1,000	35.8	14.4	10.2	35.0
$1,001 to $1,500	15.0	9.4	4.9	31.7
$1,501 to $2,000	--	28.5	9.0[19]	6.7
$2,001 to $2,500	--	13.8	--	1.6
$2,501 and above	--	19.5	--	2.8
Mean Loan Amount	$617	$1,667	$449	$981
Percent of Veterans Receiving Loan	5.6%	1.2%	1.9%	10.1%

EMPLOYMENT:

The federally-funded College Work-Study Program provides an opportunity for students to have educationally related employment on the campus or in non-profit agencies in the community. The institution provides assistance in locating the jobs and referring qualified applicants to them. Employment under this program was reported by 6.4 percent of the veterans, with an average income of $980 for the academic year from CWSP jobs.

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[19] Includes all amounts above $1,501.

Table 29

Participation by Veterans in College Work-Study Employment
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

$ 1 to $ 200	26.6%
$ 201 to $ 400	10.0
$ 401 to $ 600	12.7
$ 601 to $1,000	16.6
$1,001 to $1,500	10.1
$1,501 to $2,000	7.3
$2,001 to $2,500	4.2
$2,501 to $3,000	5.5
$3,001 and above	7.0
Mean CWSP Income	$980
Percent of Veterans Receiving CWSP Income	6.4%

PARTICIPATION IN INSTITUTIONAL AND STATE FINANCIAL AID PROGRAMS

Another important resource typically available to college students comes from the financial aid programs sponsored by the institution itself and by state government. Institutional assistance typically comes in the form of scholarships and grants, non-resident tuition waivers, assistantships and research grants, and loans. Of the veterans included in the California survey, 4.4 percent reported receiving scholarships from the institution, with a mean amount for those receiving scholarships of $989. At the private institutions, where tuition charges make costs the highest, nearly 6 percent of the veterans reported receiving grants from the institution, although the mean amount granted was slightly smaller, $954. While 65.7 percent of the veterans receiving scholarships or grants from their institution reported amounts of less than $600, 10.9 percent reported grants in excess of $2,000.

The average amount reportedly received from assistantships and research grants (generally given only to graduate students) was considerably higher. The veterans who received such aid reported an average amount of $1,622, with 4.5 percent reporting assistance from this source. As would be expected, the largest group receiving these awards attended the University, where 12.8 percent of the veterans reportedly received assistantships, with an average amount of $2,134 for those receiving such aid. At the community colleges and state universities (predominantly undergraduate) this form of assistance was not significant.

Non-resident tuition waivers were reported by 2.4 percent of the veterans, with an average amount for those granted waivers of $488. The waivers were primarily small amounts, with 72.6 percent of the veterans reporting amounts less than $600.

Table 30
Veterans Participation in Institutional
Grant and Waiver Programs
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Amount of Grant	Scholarships and Grants	Assistantships and Research Grants	Non-Resident Fee Waivers
$ 1 to $ 200	32.4%	18.4%	42.4%
$ 201 to $ 400	18.3	9.7	18.6
$ 401 to $ 600	15.0	5.9	11.6
$ 601 to $1,000	11.1	8.3	10.9
$1,001 to $1,500	7.0	6.8	8.5
$1,501 to $2,000	5.3	6.8	7.9
$2,000 and above	10.9	44.1	---
Mean Grant Amount	$989	$1,622	$488
Percent of Veterans Reporting Grants	4.4%	4.5%	2.4%

Loans are another form of assistance frequently made available by colleges and universities from non-federal sources to assist students in financing their educations. These did not, however, play a major role in the financing of the veterans educations. Only 2.5 percent of the veterans reported receiving long-term loans from their institutions, with the average amount for those receiving such aid of $390. The amount of loans was generally small, with 82.5 percent of the veterans receiving loans reporting amounts of less than $600. Only 4.6 percent of the loan receipients reported amounts in excess of $1,500 for the academic year.

Table 31
Veterans Participation in Institutional Loans
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

$ 1 to $ 200	41.8%
$ 201 to $ 400	28.7
$ 401 to $ 600	12.0
$ 601 to $1,000	8.7
$1,001 to $1,500	4.3
$1,501 and above	4.6
Mean Loan	$390
Percent of Veterans Reporting Institutional Loans	2.5%

The State of California provides several programs of financial assistance to college students. The Competitive Scholarship Program provides for grants up to the amount of tuition for entering freshmen (renewable for four years), the College Opportunity Grant Program provides for tuition and room and board grants up to $1,000 to minority students attending primarily the community colleges, and the Graduate Fellowship Program provides stipends to students who plan to teach at the college level within the State. Only 3.4 percent of the veterans reported receiving grants from the State, with an average amount for those receiving such aid of $696.

Table 32
Veterans Participation in State Scholarship Programs
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

\$ 1 to \$ 200	35.1%
\$ 201 to \$ 400	14.8
\$ 401 to \$ 600	18.2
\$ 601 to \$1,000	9.2
\$1,001 to \$1,500	6.0
\$1,501 to \$2,000	7.4
\$2,001 to \$2,500	4.3
\$2,501 and above	5.0
Mean State Scholarship or Grant	\$696
Percent of Veterans Reporting State Scholarship or Grant	3.4%

PARTICIPATION IN OTHER BENEFIT PROGRAMS

In addition to the support available through the GI Bill, there are a variety of other benefit programs that can be used while attending colleges or universities. While not many students receive benefits from these other programs, for those that do they provide a significant source of support. The Student Resources Survey collects information about benefits received from Social Security, Welfare, Vocational Rehabilitation, and Other Sources. Of the veterans, 3.3 percent reported receiving benefits from Social Security, with an average for those receiving Social Security of $788 for the academic year. A small group—2.4 percent—of the veterans reported that they were receiving assistance from Welfare, in an average amount of $680. Only 2.1 percent indicate that they were receiving assistance from Vocational Rehabilitation. The average amount of voc-rehab benefits received for the academic year was $660. A total of 3.6 percent of the veterans reported receiving undescribed "other benefits," with the average being $999 for the academic year, and 5.6 percent reported that they were eligible to purchase Food Stamps.

Table 33
Veterans Participation in Other Benefit Programs
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Type of Benefits	Percent of Veterans Receiving	Average Amount Per Recipient
Social Security	3.3%	$788
Welfare	2.4	680
Vocational Rehabilitation	2.1	660
Other	3.6	999
Food Stamps	5.6	--

A relatively small percentage of the veterans in the California sample were admitted to the institution they now attend as first-time freshmen. Only 14.5 percent were admitted to their present instititution as freshmen. As might be expected in California, more than half of the total veterans population, 51.2 percent, were admitted as transfer students from a community college, with 48.9 percent transferring from an in-state and only 2.3 percent from an out-of-state community college. In addition, 30.2 percent of the veterans transferred from another four year institution, and 4.1 percent were admitted as graduates of a four-year institution. Of the non-white group, slightly larger percentages were admitted as first-time freshmen and as transfers from community colleges.

Table 34
Method of Admission
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Method of Admission	Total	White	Non-White
First-time Freshman	14.5%	13.8%	16.4%
Community College Transfer			
In-State	48.9	47.8	52.0
Out-of-State	2.3	2.0	3.2
Transfer from Four-Year Institution			
In-State	11.9	12.2	10.9
Out-of-State	18.3	20.1	13.0
Graduate of a Four-Year Institution	4.1	4.0	4.5

The veterans group has high educational aspirations. In the total group, 60.0 percent indicate their intention to obtain a degree beyond the Bachelors, while only 10.1 percent indicate their intention to end their education after receiving a certificate or two-year Associate Degree. The aspirations of the non-white veteran are somewhat lower, with only 56.1 percent anticipating a degree beyond the Bachelors and 13.6 percent planning on less than a Bachelor's Degree.

Table 35
Highest Level of Education Planned
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Highest Level of Education Planned to Complete at Present College or Other	Total	White	Non-White
Doctorate	24.9%	25.8%	22.8%
Masters or First Professional Degree	35.4	36.2	33.3
Bachelors	29.6	29.3	30.3
Two-Year Associate	8.6	7.4	11.5
Non-Degree Certificate	1.5	1.3	2.1

The average self-reported academic achievement of the total veterans group in California is slightly lower than "B", with a mean grade-point average of 2.87 (4.00 = A). The self-reported achievement of the Non-White group is slightly lower, with a mean of 2.73. Of the total group, 18.3 percent indicated that their grades were "mostly A's (3.50 and above), while only .7 percent indicated they were "mostly D's (1.50 and below).

Table 36
Self-Reported Academic Achievement in College
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

How Would You Rate Your Academic Achievement in College?	Total	White	Non-White
Mostly A's (3.50 and above)	18.3%	20.4%	13.3%
Mostly B's (3.49 to 2.50)	55.8	57.8	51.0
Mostly C's (2.49 to 1.50)	25.2	21.4	334.3
Mostly D's (below 1.50)	.7	.4	1.4

The vast majority of veterans plan to continue their education without interruption next year. When asked if they were planning to return to school in the fall, only 3.2 percent of the total group indicated that they would not -- and of that group 2.4 percent indicated that they planned to "stop out" and ultimately return. Of the total group, II.2 percent indicated that they would receive their degrees at the end of the 1971-72 academic year, and 85.5 percent indicated that they would be back for the fall, 1972.

Table 37
Self-Reported Persistence
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Are You Planning to Return to School in the Fall?	Total	White	Non-White
Yes	85.5%	84.7%	87.5%
No, I will Receive My Degree	11.2	12.2	9.0
No, I plan to "Stop-Out"	2.3	2.4	2.1
No, I plan to drop-out	.9	.7	1.4

FINANCING THE VETERANS EDUCATION

In order to provide for more direct comparisons of those items of cost associated with a college education which are directly under the control of the veteran, the earlier discussions of the educational budgets excluded the cost of tuition and fees. Similarly, the discussions of the sources of support available to the veteran included generally only those who reported receiving such assistance. Neither of these two measures provides a truly accurate picture of the financing of the veterans education, for he surely must pay the tuition and fees assessed by the institution (particularly in view of the fact that the present veteran does not receive a separate allowance for tuition and fees as did his counterpart in World War II), and the sources of support which are not available to the veteran are equally important in describing how he pays the costs of his education.

Financing patterns are related to human differences, and in many instances reflect the choice that the veteran makes. One most important choice is the college he attends. In California, the community colleges charge practically no tuition and fees, the public four-year institutions charge amounts which could be described as ranging from nominal to modest, and the independent colleges generallly charge substantial amounts for tuition and fees. So the institution that the veteran choses to attend influences the amount that he will need to finance, and presumably the way in which he will finance. One veteran may chose to work heavily while attending college; another may chose to borrow now and repay subsequently. These choices too reflect differing patterns of financing.

THE BUDGETS

Previously, budgets were reported excluding the amounts reported for tuition and fees. This does not provide a completely accurate picture of the amounts that the veteran must pay. It should also be noted that the respondents to the Student Resource Survey were asked to provide an estimate only of the amounts that they spent during the normal nine-month academic year. Since most of the veterans in the California sample are independent of their parents, and therefore presumably responsible for their own support during vacation and summer periods, an estimate of expenses for only nine-months does not accurately reflect the total responsibility of the veteran.

In the following comparison, the budgets for the two segments of four-year public education, the University of California and the California State University and College System, have been combined. The expenses of attending these two segments are basically the same, and combining the amounts presents a more general picture of the cost of attending a four-year public college or university.

The least expensive education can be obtained at the public, two-year community college. The mean expenditure reported by all of the veterans in the sample attending community colleges was $1,068. Of the veterans attending community college, 55.8 percent reported expenditures of less than $1,500 for the nine-month academic year, while only 18.0 percent reported spending in excess of $3,000 for the year.

The next-most-expensive education can be obtained at the public four-year colleges and universities, where the mean expenditure reported by veterans was

$2,815 for the nine-month academic year. At the public four-year colleges 23.1 percent of the veterans reported expenditures of less than $1,500 and 40.7 percent had expenditures in excess of $3,000 for the year. The most expensive education, as might be expected, is found at the independent colleges, where the mean expenditures reported by the veterans was $4,216 for the nine-month academic year. Only 8.2 percent of the veterans at the independent colleges reported total nine-month expenditures of less than $1,500, while 71.1 percent reported expenditures of more than $3,000. Within that group, 22.3 percent of the veterans at the independent colleges reported spending over $6,000 for the nine-month academic year.

The following table shows the distribution of budgets for the veterans attending the three different institutional types in the State of California.

Table [illegible]

Veterans Reported Total Nine-Month Academic Year Budget
By Institutional Type
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

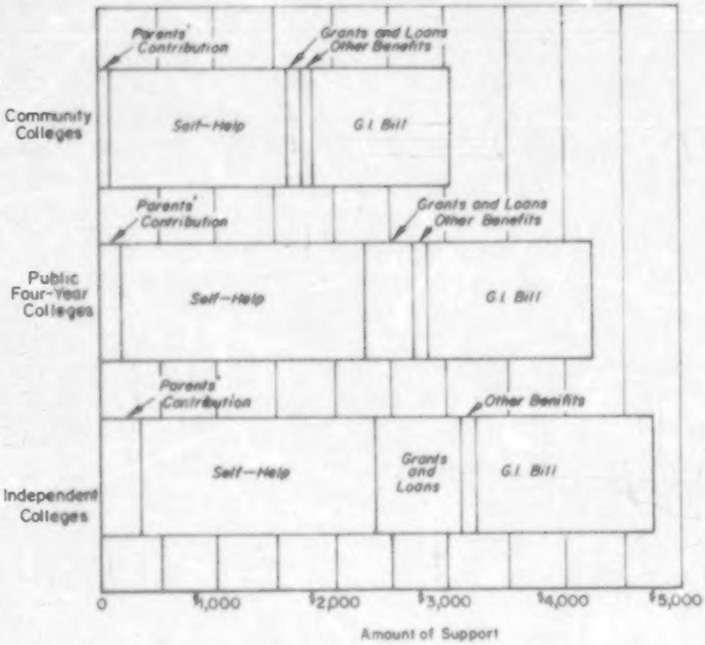
Amount	Two-Year Community Colleges	Four-Year Public	Independent
\$ 1 to \$ 200	5.8%	1.2%	.5%
\$ 201 to \$ 400	16.6	3.9	.6
\$ 401 to \$ 600	11.7	4.6	.6
\$ 601 to \$1,000	11.2	5.7	3.0
\$1,001 to \$1,500	10.5	7.7	3.5
\$1,501 to \$2,000	9.8	10.2	5.7
\$2,001 to \$2,500	9.1	13.0	6.4
\$2,501 to \$3,000	7.3	12.9	8.4
\$3,001 to \$3,500	5.8	10.2	7.6
\$3,501 to \$4,000	4.4	8.4	10.6
\$4,001 to \$4,500	2.6	6.3	8.1
\$4,501 to \$5,000	1.7	4.0	8.7
\$5,001 to \$6,000	1.9	5.7	13.8
\$6,001 and above	1.6	5.7	22.3
Mean Expenditure	\$1,668	\$2,815	\$4,216

SOURCES OF SUPPORT:

The various kinds of support available to the veteran -- parental contribution, a working spouse, personal savings and employment, scholarships and grants, borrowing, and other benefits -- can be combined in an infinite number of ways to make up the total resources available to the veteran to finance his education. The earlier discussions of participation in various kinds of support described the average amounts received by those veterans reporting assistance from the source. But since one veteran may chose to work and another to borrow to arrive at the same amount of support, consideration of the averages received by the recipients does not provide an accurate picture of the role of a particular kind of support in the total financing pattern.

In the following analysis, the average amount derived from each source has been recomputed for the total group of veterans attending each type of institution. For example, the mean amount of support from parents or guardians has been calculated by dividing the total amount received by the total number of veterans attending each kind of institution. This produces smaller means than those reported earlier, but represents a more accurate picture of the role that each kind of support plays in the total financing of veterans education.

The following graph shows the contribution from each source of support. Clearly, the two largest sources of support for the veteran are "self-help," the amount he uses from his own and his spouse's employment and from personal savings; and the funds he derives from the GI Bill:



At the community colleges 50.3 percent of the total support of the veteran comes from "self-help" and 41.3 percent from GI Bill benefits. The percentage of contribution from these sources is slightly less at the public four-year colleges, with 47.6 percent coming from "self-help" and 36.0 percent coming from the GI Bill. At the independent colleges and universities the percentage contribution is even smaller, with 42.5 percent coming from "self-help" and 32.9 percent from the GI Bill benefits.

The contribution from parents and guardians seems clearly related to the cost of education. At the lower cost community colleges the parental contribution makes up only 2.2 percent of the total; at the public four-year colleges it comprises 3.2 percent of the total; while at the higher cost independent colleges it makes up 6.8 percent of the total. A similar pattern is seen in the contribution from other financial aid programs (grants and loans) where at the community colleges 3.8 percent of the total comes from these sources; at the public four-year colleges 10.6 percent, and at the independent colleges 15.4 percent. The percent of support received from "other benefits" (social security, welfare, vocational rehabilitation, etc.) is relatively constant with 2.5 percent at both the community colleges and public four-year colleges and 2.4 percent at the independent colleges.

It is interesting to note that the average amount contributed from personal employment is nearly the same at all three types of institutions. Veterans at the community colleges used $1,043 from personal employment, veterans at the public four-year colleges used $1,144, and veterans at the independent colleges used $1,170.

Table 39
Contributions from Different Sources of Support
California Veterans
1971-72 Academic Year

Source of Support	Community Colleges		Public Four-Year Colleges		Independent Colleges	
	Mean	Percent	Mean	Percent	Mean	Percent
Parents and Guardians	$ 66	2.2%	$ 137	3.2%	$ 325	6.8%
Self-Help						
Personal employment	1,043	34.6	1,144	27.1	1,170	24.5
Personal savings	242	8.0	283	6.7	411	8.6
Spouse	231	7.7	584	13.8	453	9.5
Total Self-Help	$1,516	50.3	$2,011	47.6	$2,034	42.6
Financial Aid						
Grants and scholarships	47	1.6	195	4.6	330	7.0
Loans	67	2.2	254	6.0	405	8.4
Total Financial Aid	$ 114	3.8	$ 449	10.6	$ 735	15.4
Other Benefits	74	2.5	104	2.5	115	2.4
GI Bill	1,244	41.3	1,520	36.0	1,573	32.9
TOTAL SUPPORT	$3,014		$4,221		$4,782	

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Educational Assistance to Veterans:
A Comparative Study of Three GI Bills

ERRATA

Page 9: Conclusion 9 should read:

While other federally funded student aid programs are available to veterans to assist in the financing of their postsecondary education, it appears that participation by veterans of the Vietnam Conflict has been relatively small. The small participation of veterans in these other federally funded student aid programs may be attributable to the policy of institutional financial aid officers of giving priority in the allocation of financial aid resources to those students with the greatest financial need.

Page 11: Paragraph following Conclusion 11, eliminate lines 6, 7, 8 and the word today from line 9.

Page 39: Table 6 percentages should read:

4-year Public	42%	48%
2-year Public	39%	29%
Private	19%	23%

Page 53: Line 9, 73.1 percent should read 78.2 percent.

Page 106: Line 6, 35.9 percent should read 35.4 percent.

Page 144: Line 3, Korean and Vietnam Era.